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Urban teachers' understandings and uses of student funds of knowledge in the development of global competence

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Boston University

BOSTON UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Dissertation

**URBAN TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDINGS AND USES OF STUDENT FUNDS
OF KNOWLEDGE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL COMPETENCE**

by

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For Menelik

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This project was conceived of five years ago, but like any labor of love, it has been with me for much longer. At each stage of this process—from my very first musings about how to teach urban students about the world, to this point of culmination—there have been individuals who have provided me with support, inspiration, guidance, and encouragement to ensure that I would not fail in this endeavor.

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Boston University School of Education, 2018

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ABSTRACT

Global competence--a necessary attribute in an increasingly interconnected world--describes having the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to act creatively and collaboratively on important global issues. In urban settings comprised of racial, ethnic, and/or linguistic-minority students, especially, a logical but seemingly underutilized facilitator of global competence would be instruction that draws from students' funds of knowledge--the home-based practices central to a household's functioning and well-being. In response to a need for deepened insight into how these concepts may interact in practice, the goal of this qualitative study was to better understand the experience of urban teachers as global competence educators, specifically, the extent to which they consider and utilize their students' funds of knowledge in developing global competence. In this study, 30 Boston area teachers were interviewed using a semi-structured protocol to draw out their understandings of students' funds of knowledge and their awareness of how these funds of knowledge might be used to further the development of global competence. Data produced in this study were analyzed through a multi-phase thematic coding process. A conceptual framework built upon existing definitions of global competence and funds of knowledge was developed to inform the design and

methodology of this study, and was used as a guide for viewing and understanding the produced data. The two major findings of this study were that: (1) teachers, while seemingly able and willing to talk about global competence and funds of knowledge in relation to their students, did not seem to synthesize (or speak about their synthesis of) these concepts in practice, and, (2) in teacher interviews, potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge were most often recognized in immigrant and/or economically privileged White students. The potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority, and presumably, low-income students were not routinely recognized or accessed.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Problem/Rationale

A globally competent individual possesses the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to act creatively and collaboratively on important issues that impact the globe (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). In the k-12 classroom, powerful teaching for global competence entails engagement in exploration, critical analysis, synthesis, and communication (often in multi-languages) relating to issues of global significance (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Morais & Ogden, 2010). The practice of educating for global competence is a response to the demands of globalization: as the world becomes more interconnected, students' success will hinge on their ability to understand and act upon issues that are complex in nature and global in scope (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; NEA, 2010; Reimers, 2010).

The case for global competence education grows out of the necessity for students to be prepared for what Thomas Friedman calls the *flat world* (2005). As the real and virtual distances between individuals have been shortened, our global interconnections are more easily realized. For example, the 2014 outbreak of the Ebola virus showed us how, through increased migration, epidemics are more easily able to transcend national and continental boundaries to impact multiple communities. In a different way, the 2011 Arab Spring was only able to spread with intensity from nation to nation because of the rapid communication of ideas through social media. We currently exist in a world where, despite recent infusions of nationalistic and xenophobic sentiments into our political and

social discourse, persistent global challenges such as climate change and cross-border human trafficking serve as evidence to show how our fates are inextricably linked.

Globalization and the resultant *flat world* have also brought significant changes to the nature of work in our society. An abundance of cheap labor in the developing world has provided US companies with ways to maximize returns by hiring individuals overseas in place of more costly American workers. Often times, it is the superior technical training of foreign workers that drives the need to look elsewhere to fill positions: "...China, India, and other countries not only have cheap labor for low-skilled jobs but also have millions of engineers, computer programmers, and other professionals who can competently fill positions that require more sophisticated knowledge and skills, and cost less" (Zhao, 2009, p. 111). Furthermore, as economies have improved in some parts of the developing world, many countries have been able to devote more time and attention to the expansion and improvement of their education systems (Zhao, 2010). In an economy that is increasingly reliant on collaboration between workers from different backgrounds, what all of this means for American students is that in order to compete for certain jobs, they will need to not only have the technical skills to be able to perform the specific functions of these jobs, but they will also need the capacity to understand, interact, and collaborate with their global counterparts to achieve common, work-related goals.

Some nations, Japan, for instance, have heeded the call for increased global competence through an enactment of national education policies aimed at developing youth who are able to think about and act upon issues of global significance (Schiavenza,

2017). Singapore, as another example, through its Ministry of Education, recently developed an education framework aimed at growing students to “acquire a range of 21st-century competencies and global competencies, anchored on a set of core values” (Hilton, 2016, p. 1). Perhaps most indicative of a nascent international push for increased attention to the importance of global competence education, however, is the fact that the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which administers the PISA exam or *Programme for International Student Assessment*, will launch a ‘global competency’ section of the exam in 2018 to measure students’ ability to “understand and appreciate different perspectives and world views [and] interact successfully and respectfully with others” (The Pie News, 2018, p. 1). Despite these developments, however, global competence remains low on the totem pole of U.S. national education policy. And, while there are some states and districts across the country that do at least recognize the value of global competence as an educational goal, global competence development in the American k-12 education setting seems to happen in relative isolation.

When considering the uses or intended outcomes of global competence from an educational perspective, whether it is to achieve social improvement or to garner a competitive edge in the workplace, it should be noted that this study is motivated by a desire to engage in the former. As a veteran teacher of urban youth, my experience has been that students are most engaged when they take part in learning about the world and are supported in problem-solving global issues. Further, as my former students have by and large been members of disenfranchised groups, the potential benefits associated with

the attainment of some form of social improvement have resonated with them in a profound way.

By failing to direct our collective effort in schools toward building the global competence of American—and in particular, urban American—youth, we are missing out on important opportunities to draw students into the curriculum and engage with them in meaningful ways as they problem solve the issues that impact them and others across the globe. It is always disheartening to witness students who have yet to realize their personal and collective agency when it comes to important global issues, or who retain an insular viewpoint—not through any fault of their own—but because they were never encouraged to consider the world outside of their own environment. We see the deleterious effects of this educational oversight in many of our countrymen and leaders, who often reenact the trope of the “ugly American”, by demonstrating disinterest in issues that are globally impactful. This is unfortunate, simply because due to forces of globalization and the precarious condition of our planet, we have already reached a point where we as Americans can no longer maintain a U.S.-centric view of the world, as all nations are now forced to more directly contend with encroaching global challenges like climate change, cross-border migration, and political unrest. Global competence is an educational imperative necessary for all Americans, and for all humans—urban, suburban, and rural.

This study focuses exclusively on the potential for global competence development in students who live in and are educated in urban settings for at least two reasons. First, urban students, and particularly those from racial minority groups, are

often marginalized within our society. This marginalization, which often manifests in disenfranchisement, economic insecurity, and unrecognized/unaffirmed personal and collective agency, leaves this group most vulnerable to the negative impacts of significant global challenges. Second, because urban teachers often work with diverse student bodies that bring various intercultural connections to the classroom, one might assume that they would be well positioned to teach in ways that promote global competence. In urban settings comprised of racial, ethnic, and/or linguistic-minority students, especially, a logical but seemingly underutilized facilitator of global competence would be instruction that draws from students' funds of knowledge.

Conceptual Underpinnings of this Study

While global competence describes an individual's ability to creatively and collaboratively act upon issues of global significance, *Funds of Knowledge* "refers to those historically developed and accumulated strategies (skills, abilities, ideas, practices) or bodies of knowledge that are essential to a household's functioning and well-being" (Gonzalez, et al., 2005, p. 92). In the early 1990s, Norma Gonzalez, Luis Moll, and colleagues from the University of Arizona collaborated with Tucson-area teachers to gather, document, and theorize Mexican-American family- and community-based funds of knowledge to enrich their k-12 classrooms (Gonzalez, et al., 2005). Through their research, they discovered students' high levels of participation in the functioning, and often times, survival, of their households and life-worlds outside of school and the degree to which their specialized knowledge was a result of a complex interweaving of socio-

historical, cultural, and other factors (2005). These funds of knowledge that young people brought to the classroom might then be used to scaffold new learning, bridge home and school worlds, and assist in the formation of a collective *third space*, a physical and conceptual site where powerful, transformative, learning might occur (Gutierrez, 2008).

An application of third space theory (Gutierrez, 2008) illuminates the connection between funds of knowledge and action-oriented global competence pedagogy. As an extension of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, third space theory describes a conceptual bridge where curriculum and pedagogy drawing from students' lived experiences activate visions of, and an orientation toward, an improved world. In this collective third space, "...students begin to reconceive who they are and what they might be able to accomplish academically and beyond" (Gutierrez, 2008, p. 148). A foundation in funds of knowledge is crucial to the prospect of reaching this bridge as it allows students to: (1) realize the inherent value of skills and dispositions that were garnered through their experiences outside of the classroom, (2) understand their positioning in the world, (3) examine how their plight connects to that of others, and (4) realize their agency as catalysts for global change. At the core of third space theory is a philosophy that is "oriented toward a form of 'cosmopolitanism' characterized by the ideals and practices of a shared humanity, a profound obligation to others, boundary crossing, and intercultural exchange in which difference is celebrated without being romanticized" (p. 149).

Utilizing urban students' funds of knowledge to advance global competence

would be nothing short of a transformative undertaking, as it would not only energize students to consider how they might be able to change the world, but it challenges conventional ways of thinking about knowledge and power. Gonzalez, et al. (2005) expounds upon this potential:

[Funds of knowledge pedagogy crosses] the ultimate border—the border between knowledge and power...when educational institutions no longer reify culture, when lived experiences become validated as a source of knowledge, and when the process of how knowledge is constructed and translated between groups located within nonsymmetrical relations of power is questioned. (p. 42)

The explicit integration of the concepts, funds of knowledge and global competence, is virtually nonexistent in the literature. In response to an apparent need for deepened insight into how these concepts may interact, the goal of this study is to better understand the experience of urban teachers as global competence educators, specifically, the extent to which they consider and utilize their students' funds of knowledge in developing global competence. Furthermore, this study centers on a belief that a marriage between these two concepts would be most powerful in the urban educational setting given the greater likelihood of students' minority status and/or exposure to diverse cultures.

Study Design and Methodology Overview

This study investigated the extent to which teachers in urban public schools consider and draw from their students' funds of knowledge in the development of global

competence. In-person, one-to-one, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 Boston-area teachers who were either interested in or claimed to have experience with funds of knowledge and/or global competence pedagogy. These interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed through a multi-phase coding process, whereby theory-driven and emergent themes were applied.

Key Findings

Two significant findings emerged from this study. The first showed that while teachers readily shared their understandings of student funds of knowledge and global competence in interviews, they did not articulate a synthesis of these two concepts in practice. The second finding revealed that teachers were most likely to elaborate on the global competence-related funds of knowledge of two student groups in particular--white affluent students and those from immigrant backgrounds. In their interviews, teachers spoke in concrete ways about how the perceived funds of knowledge of these students might enrich learning, however, the global competence-related funds of knowledge of minority, non-immigrant students were not recognized or routinely accessed.

Significance of Study

The body of literature relating to global competence education lacks specific references to student funds of knowledge. As such, this study is significant for two reasons. First, it will contribute to the bodies of global competence and funds of knowledge scholarship as it addresses an integration of concepts that remains relatively unexplored. Second, and perhaps on a more practical level, this study is significant for

teachers, school/district leaders, and policymakers who support the use of funds of knowledge in the classroom and global competence as an instructional goal, as this study will provide insight into the nuances of its implementation.

Chapter Summary

This chapter began by providing a narrative of the rationale for this study, articulating a case for global competence education and describing why the urban classroom would be primed for this sort of instruction given students' increased likelihood of minority status and/or exposure to diverse cultures. From there, a brief overview of important concepts such as funds of knowledge and third space theory, as well as insights into the study's design, major findings, and significance, were introduced to provide the reader with additional background and insights.

In subsequent chapters, each topic introduced in chapter one is given greater attention. For example, chapter 2 provides a review of the extant literature involving global education, global competence, funds of knowledge, and other related concepts, to situate this study within a wider conceptual landscape and provide necessary framing for the development of a conceptual model. Chapter 3 describes, in detail, the methodology employed to carry out the study and analyze its findings, which are reported on in chapter 4. Finally, chapter 5 guides the reader to a nuanced understanding of this study's major implications through discussion and an application of the conceptual model.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

To provide a comprehensive overview of the theoretical underpinnings of my study, in this section, I offer an analysis of the extant literature relating to (1) global education, (2) global competence, and (3) funds of knowledge. In the first section, *global education*, I present and synthesize a number of frameworks that have over the years sought to typify this elusive concept. In the next section, I explore definitions of global competence (a subset of global education) from which I extracted four important pedagogical themes. Then, in the section of the literature review devoted to funds of knowledge, I give an overview of the history, research, and classroom implications of this pedagogical orientation and practice, and discuss related concepts including: deficit theorizing, culturally relevant pedagogy, culturally sustaining pedagogy, reality pedagogy, and third space theory. In the transitions between topics, and throughout this literature review, I have attempted to draw connections from one concept to the next in order to illumine potential links, and also provide an explanation of how the findings of this study will contribute to extant literature.

Global Education

Global education is a term that has multiple interpretations (Pike, 2000; Kirkwood, 2001; Le Roux, 2001). Lack of clarity around how global education is defined has been a point of contention for those concerned with its widespread promotion and application, while others believe that its definitional ambiguities allow meanings to

be derived from practice (Pike, 2000). Although there is no one clear way of defining global education, a number of scholars have attempted to conceptualize global education goals through the construction of descriptive frameworks, many of which share common themes (Le Roux, 2001). As global competence is a subset of global education, this section informs the present study by offering the landscape of global education as an expansive site upon which global competence frameworks might be situated.

Hanvey's global perspective framework is often used as a baseline for descriptions of global education (Kirkwood, 2001; Le Roux, 2001). This is because it was one of the first scholarly works to attempt creation of a global education related framework (Kirkwood, 2001), and is often the framework used in schools (Kirkwood, 2001; Merryfield, 1997). Here, Hanvey (1982) offers Five Dimensions of a Global Perspective, which are thought by many in the field to collectively contribute to the attainment of global education goals, as global perspective is a major component of global education (Kirkwood, 2001; Anderson, 2001).

The first of Hanvey's five dimensions is *perspective consciousness*, or the recognition of one's own perspective and the understanding that multiple perspectives exist. Individuals who have perspective consciousness realize that personal perspective, distinct from opinion, is fashioned by unconscious cultural and contextual influences (Hanvey, 1982). According to Hanvey, part of the work of a global educator is to guide processes that would "probe the deep levels of perspective" (p. 163) and use them as a starting point for better understanding the profound impact of human perspective on human actions (Kirkwood, 2001). *State of the planet awareness*, the second dimension of

global perspective, refers to one's knowledge of contemporary world conditions. Hanvey (1982) asserts that many people have limited direct experience or knowledge of the world beyond the boundaries of their own neighborhoods, and urges the development of awareness of world conditions to include: demographic shifts and migration patterns, political developments, environmental concerns, inter-nation and intra-nation conflicts, etc., to inform one's understanding. Third, *cross-cultural awareness* denotes a compassionate understanding of the ideas and practices followed by groups of people across the globe, while giving attention to the ways in which one's own culturally-based ideas and practices might be viewed by others who are not a part of that culture. Understanding the world as a global system is the goal of the fourth dimension, *knowledge of global dynamics*, which encourages a view of the world as an "interconnected system of complex traits and mechanisms and unanticipated consequences" (Kirkwood, 2001, p. 11). This domain specifically focuses on the exchanges of actors and their role in initiating and manipulating global change (Hanvey, 1982). Lastly, *awareness of human choices* promotes attention to the impact of choices made by individuals, nations, etc., particularly as knowledge of the global system increases (1982).

Knierp (1989) presents a framework for global education that similarly focuses on dimensions or domains that relate to understandings of global issues, interactions, and worldviews. For example, his *Four Domains of Student Inquiry* (with regard to global education) includes both the (a) study of systems (global, economic, political, technological, ecological) and (b) the study of global issues and problems. Each of these

corresponds to elements of Hanvey's framework. However, Kniep adds an additional two domains: (c) the study of global history, and (d) the study of human values. The former of these examines the historical events and points of contact between and across cultures to provide insight into the current state of the world. The latter, in a way that loosely relates to Hanvey's cross-cultural awareness and perspective consciousness dimensions, explores themes of group membership and diversity of belief (Kniep, 1989).

Key Elements of a Global Perspective, a framework put forth by Case (1993), draws from the work of both Hanvey and Kniep to outline and then dichotomize what he sees as the two main contributors to the development of global perspective. In an explicit connection to global education, he begins this work by identifying global perspective as a "central goal of global education" (1993, p. 318). Then, from there, he identifies the two dimensions of global perspective: the *substantive dimension* and the *perceptual dimension*. The substantive dimension includes knowledge of the "objects" of a global perspective, for example, information about world events, global systems, geography, and culture, while the perceptual dimension "describes an orientation or outlook... the points of view—the matrix of concepts, orientations, values, sensibilities, and attitudes—from which we want students to perceive the world" (1993, p. 318). In his discussion, Case explains that the perceptual dimension serves as the lens for the substantive dimension; students' interaction with global education related "objects" would ostensibly be mediated by their perceptions.

Pike and Selby (1994) identify five main student goals relating to global education: (1) *systems consciousness*, or an awareness of the systemic nature of global

relations and processes; (2) *perspective consciousness*, in alignment with Hanvey (1982), refers to awareness of diverse perspectives; (3) *health of planet awareness*, also reminiscent of Hanvey's framework, suggests that students should have a strong understanding of the Earth's condition, including current events and trends; (4) *involvement consciousness and preparedness*, an awareness of the repercussions of choices and actions; and (5) *process mindedness*, an understanding that learning and development are life-long processes with no fixed destination. Pike and Selby (2000), in their later work, construct a four-dimensional model of global education that, in drawing from the contemporary framework of systems theory, "attempts to draw together the multifaceted and interlocking elements of global education theory and practice" (p. 2). These four dimensions include: (1) the spatial dimension: local-to-global connections in economic, social, and political terms; (2) the temporal dimension: the interconnections of past, present and future; (3) the issues dimension: issues affecting the global community; and (4) the inner dimension: understanding of one's self and one's potential.

Other scholars have contributed in working toward a clearer definition of global education. Alger and Harf (1986) for example, offer five themes for global education: values, transaction, actors, procedures and mechanisms, and issues. Kirkwood (1995) writes that a main goal of global education is to expand one's understanding of the world. And, Merryfield (1997) argues for a more democratized version of global education that includes multiple voices, while migrating away from a Eurocentric, Western-dominated perspective.

While this study looks specifically at urban teachers' ideas and practices vis-a-vis

global competence (which is just one subset of global education), the aforementioned frameworks and definitions were instrumental in the construction of my own understanding of the global education landscape, and perhaps more importantly, to confirm an assumption that this is a topic that has many moving parts. As such, one goal of my work has been to force clarity upon the nebulous entity that is global education. And, despite a notion that the definitional and practical inconsistencies that mark global education may, in some ways, be viewed as beneficial because they allow for local preferences to guide features of global education programs (Merryfield, 1997), when engaging in the important work of identifying problematic elements of practice and devising strategies for improvement, a recognition and understanding of what is distinct and/or common is essential. For the scholar/researcher like myself, who is concerned with contributing to the extant body of knowledge, this synthesis of existing frameworks contextualizes specific elements that are part of a broader construct and informs understanding.

Readers will find that throughout this study, references to *both* global competence and global education literature are sometimes used in attempts to explain various phenomena relating to the data. The reason for this is that as global competence is a newer construct on the educational scene, there exists a greater wealth of scholarship emanating from the global education side. And, because global competence is a concept that has grown out of the broader construct of global education, in places where ideas in this study connect in a direct way to global education, and perhaps more implicitly to global competence, references to both sets of literature will capitalize on these

opportunities to build upon existing understandings of global competence.

Global Competence

Global education encompasses the various pedagogical approaches, philosophies, and outcomes associated with globally oriented teaching and learning, and within this domain, global competence is one form of global education. Distinguishable from concepts like *global citizenship*, another term associated with global education, *multicultural education*, and *cosmopolitanism*, *global competence*, as it is defined, draws from an assemblage of developed proficiencies, knowledge, and dispositions that would enable one to collaboratively engage with issues that impact the global community.

As with global education, there are multiple ways that global competence has been conceptualized. Boix-Mansilla and Jackson (2011) define global competence as having the “capacity and disposition to understand and act on issues of global significance” (p. xiii). Hunter (2006) depicts global competence as: “having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and expectations of others, leveraging this gained knowledge to interact, communicate, and work effectively outside one’s environment” (p. 17). Other global competence scholars, for example, Morais and Ogden (2010), have pointed out the absence of social responsibility and civic engagement norms in other global competence conceptualizations and advocated for their inclusion. Reimers (2010), describes global competence as: “the knowledge and skills to help people understand the flat world in which they live, integrate across disciplinary domains to comprehend global affairs and events, and create possibilities to address them” (p. 1). Lastly, the National Education Association, a professional organization and labor union,

adds foreign language proficiency as a requisite skill (NEA, 2010).

A synthesis of these conceptualizations might yield the following four themes to assist in building a framework for understanding global competence: (1) skill/proficiency development; (2) substantive knowledge building around global topics; (3) the cultivation of particular dispositions; and (4) an orientation toward individual and collaborative action. A mapping of these themes onto the global education frameworks introduced in the last section demonstrates exactly how global competence overlaps with certain other concepts of global education. Additionally, it shows how global perspective—one aspect of global education—would be an optimal starting point in the development of global competence. Recall that, according to Case (1993), there are two interconnected dimensions of a global perspective: the substantive and the perceptual. The substantive dimension involves the objects relating to global knowledge—the *things* that students need to know and understand about the world and its systems; and the perceptual dimension constitutes the “various intellectual values, dispositions, and attitudes that distinguish a parochial perspective [i.e., making sense of the world from superficial, narrow, self-absorbed points of view] from a broad-minded perspective [i.e., making sense of the world from ‘enlightened points of view’]” (p. 320). Alignment of these dimensions with particular global competence themes is a somewhat intuitive process. Of course, *substantive knowledge building around global topics* falls squarely in the realm of the substantive dimension, while the *cultivation of particular dispositions* is a perceptual dimension-related undertaking.

Global competence represents a comprehensive ideal that draws from the two

aforementioned themes of global education--substantive knowledge building and cultivation of dispositions, but it is also distinguished as an outcome-oriented concept. Global competence implies the necessity of skills- or activity-based performance that might be assessed. This is an important consideration if policy creation is an eventual goal.

Substantive Knowledge Building Around Global Topics. In the classroom setting, globally competent students are prepared to engage in deep exploration, critical analysis, synthesis, and communication (often in multi-languages) relating to issues of global significance. In *Preparing Our Youth to Engage the World* (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011), the following unit questions are presented as examples of topics that would be well-suited for use in the global competence classroom¹:

- What is the expected impact of climate change on the Gulf of Mexico or the Gulf of Guinea, Africa?
- How does humor differ in the U.S. and in Afghanistan?
- How has the International Criminal Court interacted with national justice systems in Kosovo and Rwanda?
- How do immigrant adults from different religious orientations in the community experience the process of becoming American? (p. 21)

In model situations, educating for global competence presents content that is not only globally focused, but it encourages understanding that is nuanced, flexible, and rich

¹ Likely most appropriate for a secondary classroom.

(Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). Although global competence is rooted in the disciplines, exposure to interdisciplinary coursework is necessary for deep engagement with the content, which would aid in developing students' ability to understand the world as a complex global system (2011). One criticism of global education practice that involves the accumulation of substantive knowledge is that in many classroom settings, the building of substantive global knowledge is superficial at best (Case, 1993). A characteristic focus on the five F's of international culture—food, festivals, famous people, fashion and flags (Walker, 2001) does little to provide students with a deep understanding of the issues and connectivity of individuals and societies across the globe. If anything, (and Case also alludes to this notion), the presentation of “ethnic dishes and strange holiday practices” (2001 p.319) may do more to enact a distancing of students' concepts of themselves from the plight of others.

Cultivation of Particular Dispositions. The values, attitudes, and dispositions held by an individual construct the lens through which he or she views new information (Case, 1993). The perceptual dimension put forth in Case's (1993) global perspective framework details the ways in which individual dispositions impact how students interact with substantive global knowledge. Using binary terms such as *cosmopolitan* and *parochial*, or *narrow* and *broad*, Case describes the perceptual dimension as being an orientation or personal outlook that influences how we see the world (1993).

As mentioned previously, a major goal of global competence education is the cultivation of particular dispositions that would enable students to collaboratively engage with issues that impact the global community. Global perspective/global education

literature sheds some light on the specific attributes and distinctions that would be representative of an ideal disposition for involvement in these kinds of activities. These include: perspective consciousness (Hanvey, 1982; Pike & Selby, 1994; Merryfield, 1997), as well as: (1) open-mindedness, (2) anticipation of complexity, (3) resistance to stereotyping, (4) inclination to empathize, and (5) non-chauvinism (Case, 1993).

Hanvey (1982) asserts that quite often, individual perspectives are mired in the contexts of our immediate environment, and those things that we take for granted or assume to be true escape our conscious judgment and/or intellectual reasoning. In other instances, conscious biases cloud the perceptions of individuals, preventing meaningful interaction with topics that may not fit into existing knowledge constructs. Unexamined perspectives, whether they source from the conscious or unconscious, pose dangers to the development of global perspective. Here, Case (1993), presents a clear example: “Approaching a study with a jaundiced attitude is likely to confirm, not dispel, prejudices—a racist watching the beating of a person from another racial group may well see justice being done” (p. 319).

Accordingly, an acknowledgement of multiple perspectives (Hanvey, 1982) would be the initiatory step in developing the appropriate dispositions for global competence education. A realization that one’s own perceptions are not widely shared would, in theory, encourage the global competence student to engage in reflective practices to examine his or her own beliefs and dispositions. Of course, this is easier said than done, as many people, even when faced with lucid information that challenges or at least would warrant a reexamination of their core beliefs, will continue to hold fast to

their judgments. For this reason, the global competence classroom, as it has a focus on the cultivation of particular dispositions, is a classroom that must maintain an explicit agenda for values development, since values and dispositions are inextricably linked. Although some may take issue with the idea that schools—public schools especially—should be engaging in the work of teaching students values, Case (1993) brings up an important point that values promotion is implicit in all forms of education:

Global education, like education generally, cannot and should not be value-free. Every educational goal is an implied commitment to promote certain values over others [e.g. literacy is preferred to illiteracy, democratic ideals are superior to authoritarian values, and honesty is prized while deceit is condemned]. (p. 320)

According to Case (1993) and Lamy (1987; 1990), the discussion of which values or ideologies should be prioritized has been characterized by contention, and at times ambiguity. Lamy (1987) distinguishes between three teacher orientations: (1) Some educators are content with maintaining the status quo with regard to power structures and realities of social life; (2) others seek minimal changes to the existing world order; and (3) some desire fundamental changes to the global system. These orientations often reflect views that are entrenched in the socio-political contexts in which these educators find themselves, or else derive from personal beliefs and experiences. Regardless of orientation, global competence educators must steer clear of imposing judgments and beliefs upon students in their attempts to promote specific values. Global educators must understand that:

...the underlying value of the perceptual dimension is essentially that a broad-minded perspective is preferred over a parochial perspective—that is, it is better to formulate opinions about the world on the basis of extensive, open-minded inquiry than on the basis of unexamined or questionable assumptions. (Case, 1993)

Globally competent students must appropriately acquire open-mindedness as a personal value, and after a thorough vetting of presented substantive information, arrive at their own judgments to guide their subsequent actions. Their teachers must take heed to check their personal biases or values that may conflict with the ideals of open-mindedness and encourage students to retain an open-minded perspective.

Skill/Proficiency Development. In much of the global competence literature, the discussion of skills development has a distinct focus on language proficiency, both in the globally competent student’s mother tongue as well as in second language ability (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Reimers, 2009; NEA, 2010). This focus on language proficiency correlates to Hendrix’s (1998) *Goals of global education* framework, which places a high premium on the acquisition of foreign language so that students are better able to communicate with global counterparts.

In addition to its purpose as a functional tool that enables engagement with others and the dissemination of ideas across cultural boundaries, language, foreign language especially, provides access to cultural learning in a deep way: “The ability to understand, read, write, and speak in more than one language enhances cross-cultural communication

skills. The knowledge of additional languages opens doors to the understandings of other cultures and people who speak those languages” (NEA, 2010, p. 1). Boix-Mansilla and Jackson (2011) also place a premium on English language proficiency, specifically to highlight its historical and current position as a dominant global language of communication and commerce. In their view, American students and others for whom English is not the first language would stand to benefit from English proficiency as well as proficiency in one or more other languages (2011).

Facility with language and communication is not just limited to the acquisition of world languages, however. Learning how to *use* language effectively is an important consideration in the building of skills in globally competent students. In collaborating with others and communicating ideas, students need to be able to:

- Recognize and express how diverse audiences may perceive different meanings from the same information and how that impacts communication.
- Listen to and communicate effectively with diverse people, using appropriate verbal and nonverbal behavior, languages and strategies.
- Select and use appropriate technology and media to communicate with diverse audiences.
- Reflect on how effective communication impacts understanding and collaboration in an interdependent world. (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. 39)

There are other requisite skills that lend to the building of global competence.

These include competitive skills (NEA, 2010) and media/technological skills (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). Competitive skills are described in the literature as the “high-level thinking skills that enhance creativity and innovation” (NEA, 2010, p. 1). These are the skills that are represented in the upper domains of Bloom’s taxonomy and involve processes of analysis, evaluation, and creation (Marzano, 2001). While arguably more difficult to develop in students than those skills occupying the lower rungs of the taxonomy, competitive skills are essential in moving past a rudimentary understanding of the content, and impart the necessary facilities with which students are able to engage in issues of global significance.

In the 21st Century, technological and media proficiency is obligatory for the globally competent student. The transfer of information by electronic means is a hallmark feature of life in the global era that has enabled people separated by geography and culture to rapidly communicate with each other and share ideas. Students who are not primed for technological literacy will be at a certain disadvantage in the globally connected world, not just in terms of post-secondary employment and marketability, but also in their present existence as action-oriented global citizens.

Lastly, Pike and Selby (1994), in their framework for global education, place an emphasis on citizenship skills, recommending that students be able to: “develop the social and political action skills necessary for becoming effective participants in democratic decision-making at a variety of levels, grassroots to global” (1988). Much of the global competence literature also hints at the idea that students must be able to navigate political processes for the specific goal of bringing about change (Boix-Mansilla

& Jackson, 2011; Hunter, 2006; Morais & Ogden, 2010; Reimers, 2010), although this is more typically a focus of global citizenship education.

Orientation Toward Individual and Collaborative Action. According to Boix-Mansilla & Jackson (2011), globally competent students have significant concerns about the state of the planet in future years while retaining an action-oriented mindset that is focused on what they are able to accomplish in the present moment. Through investigation, planning, and engagement in action, globally competent students begin to realize their capacity as change agents:

Alone or in collaboration, ethically and creatively, globally competent students envision and weigh options for action based on evidence and insight. They can assess the potential impact of their plans, taking into account varied perspectives and potential consequences for others. And they demonstrate courage—in acting and in reflecting on their actions. (p. 45)

Action-oriented projects present numerous possibilities to invigorate lessons, draw students into the content in a deeper, more meaningful way, and give students opportunities to imagine or see the real impact of their personal and collective actions as they:

- Identify and create opportunities for personal or collaborative action to address situations, events, issues, or phenomena in ways that improve conditions.
- Assess options and plan actions based on evidence and the potential for

impact, taking into account previous approaches, varied perspectives, and potential consequences.

- Act, personally or collaboratively, in creative and ethical ways to contribute to improvement locally, regionally, or globally and assess the impact of the actions taken.
- Reflect on their capacity to advocate for and contribute to improvement locally, regionally, or globally. (Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011, p. 45)

As with global education, generally, a teacher's disposition or orientation toward global issues or the purposes of global competence education can have a significant impact on the nature and direction of these activities (An, 2014). Personal philosophies are guiding forces in teachers' classroom decisions overall (Thornton, 1991). This is also true for the global competence education classroom. A teacher with a particular agenda to effect change in some area may direct her students toward activities that support the end that she seeks. Students, then, should play a participatory role in the identification and selection of the issues and activities that they will engage in, while being guided by their teacher who has at least attempted to suppress her inherent biases and has adopted open-mindedness as a personal value.

Global Competence in the Urban Setting. There is some information to suggest that in the urban context specifically, the prospect of teaching for global competence is fraught with challenges:

Large urban school districts continue to provide a challenge for global education

projects. The size and complexity of the educational bureaucracy, high turnover in schools, and the number of serious issues faced by teachers and administrators in these districts make it more difficult to address their needs. (Boston, 1997, p. 186)

These realities might lead one to conclude that students attending U.S. urban schools are not prepared for global competence. It could also be assumed that as a result, these urban students may lack preparation for the demands of the global 21st century compared to their non-urban or international counterparts. It seems counterintuitive that in diverse urban settings, global competence education would fall to the wayside given increased opportunities for cross-cultural exchange with peers. While the diversity of classrooms and communities do not present an authentic “global community”, it is a potential starting point for the development of appropriate student dispositions for global competence education.

At the same time, it would be unwise to assume that suburban and other non-urban schools are uniformly, or even to a large extent, preparing students for global competence. In many ways, the students who attend more culturally, linguistically, or racially homogeneous schools (comprised of dominant groups) face more significant challenges in the development of perspective consciousness:

When students have developed a dual consciousness because of growing up African American or Latino in a racist community, they enter a social studies classroom with many experiences and insights that will inform their

understanding of global systems because they already have a tacit understanding of how people in power use their culture to justify inequity and justice. However, the more students are privileged...[an upper class, straight, white, able-bodied male being the most privileged], the more they will need help in developing perspective consciousness since such privilege protects them from situations in which they would be forced to examine events and issues through the viewpoints of people different from themselves. (Merryfield & Subedi, 2001, p. 281)

In either context, it is likely that global competence education is not a benefit afforded to all students, and this is a problematic finding. Despite the unique history of American education that has enacted periodic shifts in the purposes of education over time, and despite the characteristic history of global/international education as an educational goal for the elite (Reimers, 2009), global competence should be an educational outcome for all students, as the realities of globalization demand it.

There are some encouraging recent trends that have been publicized by global education advocates such as the Asia Society to highlight movement toward increased global competence education in American schools. For example, the U.S. Department of Education, in 2012, listed the first objective of its international educational strategy as the increase of “global competencies of all U.S. students, including those from traditionally disadvantaged groups” (2012, p. 5). And, several states have modified their curriculum standards to include more global content (Asia Society, 2014). Still, there is significant work to be done to make global competence education a reality for all students.

My experience with global competence education and passion for this field of

study derives from my years spent as a classroom teacher in an urban International Baccalaureate (IB) school that alluded to global competence in its educational mission. My students were, for the most part, members of racial minority groups and of low socioeconomic status. Whenever I would introduce global topics or have them collaborate to problem-solve an issue that impacts the global community, they would often show heightened levels of engagement, and would literally ask for more of the same. It was as though being offered an opportunity to see past their “block” or immediate environment, and then being able to conceptualize themselves as part of a global community was invigorating. They could at once engage in an introspective examination of what was familiar to them--their lives, their families, their communities--and connect in meaningful ways to the unfamiliar to problem-solve global challenges. If for no other reason, global competence education is important because of its capacity to motivate students as they connect across perceived boundaries of geography, language, and culture to envision and work toward an improved world.

In many ways, global competence pedagogy is a departure from conventional practices of teaching and learning in the urban setting, particularly as a focus on accountability has become a significant influencer of educational policy: “With greater political attention focused on high-stakes testing, inner-city schools have come under increasing pressure to implement standards, to measure outcomes, to raise test scores, and to hold teachers and students accountable for their performance” (International Baccalaureate Organization Website, 2013). This has, more often than not, resulted in a narrowing of the curriculum at the expense of more complex and difficult to assess

educational goals like global competence. Thus, one important contribution of this study to the extant body of global competence literature is to highlight the value of global competence as an intended outcome of teaching and learning in the urban setting, in light of its perceived implementation- and assessment-related challenges.

In the urban setting especially, teacher awareness and use of students' funds of knowledge may aid in the endeavor of teaching for global competence. Fittingly, a central goal of this study is to explore how teachers in the urban setting might effectively use student funds of knowledge to facilitate the substantive, perceptual, skill-based, and action-oriented goals of global competence. The global education and global competence descriptions provided in previous sections form at least some parts of the conceptual framework that will guide this study. The next section draws from the literature and my experience as an educator to further contribute to the exploration of concepts for building a framework.

Funds of Knowledge

In the eleven years that I spent as an educator in Boston, I was instinctively aware that my students' lives outside of school were largely disconnected from the classroom. Teaching in the city's working class Chinatown neighborhood, I would from time to time catch glimpses of—and be intrigued by—what my students knew and were able to do as a result of their home and community practices. Many of my students, for example, helped out at family restaurants after school and had insider knowledge of how to run a business, or were fluent in Cantonese and mediated between home and school for their

non-English speaking parents. Other students, I knew, spent their summers visiting family members in places like Puerto Rico or Haiti, and returned with substantive and perceptual knowledge relating to life in another part of the world. While I may have had some informally gathered, general knowledge of what my students did when they exited the school's doors each afternoon, I never attempted to systematically inquire about, document, or utilize what they brought to the classroom as a tool for enhancing their development. As a Boston Public Schools student myself some years prior, and growing up in working class African-American/Caribbean neighborhoods in the city, I came to understand that apart from a superficial appreciation of the multi-cultures that exist in urban classrooms, a separation of home and school worlds was an expected part of the school experience. There was really no place in the curriculum for recognizing and building upon the funds of knowledge that students like me, from non-dominant groups, brought with them to the classroom.

The term, *funds of knowledge*, “refers to those historically developed and accumulated strategies (skills, abilities, ideas, practices) or bodies of knowledge that are essential to a household's functioning and well-being” (Gonzalez, et al., 2005, p. 92). In the early 1990s, Norma Gonzalez, Luis Moll, and colleagues from the University of Arizona collaborated with Tucson-area teachers to gather, document, and theorize Mexican-American family- and community-based funds of knowledge to enrich their k-12 classrooms (Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti, 2005). They discovered that in students' out of school lives, children routinely assumed active roles and ways of being in their respective households that warranted specific knowledge and skills (Gonzalez, et al.,

2005). Their amassed funds of knowledge, they found, had significant potential for building greater connections between perceptually distant home and school lives and could be used as a scaffold to extend what students already knew (Marshall & Toohey, 2010).

Assuming the role of teacher-ethnographers, Tucson-area educators ventured into students' homes and communities, not to conduct home visits in a traditional sense, as figures of authority, but as learners, to gather information about the lives and practices of households (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). Drawing upon Velez-Ibanez' work in establishing *confianza* (1983), mutual trust, as the "single most important mediator in social relationships... an overriding cultural intersection for Mexican-origin populations" (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005, p. 3), they applied methodologies rooted in participatory ethnography and anthropological theory to conduct their research. In their application of questionnaires, interviews, and other data collection tools, teachers were instructed to eschew notions of a shared culture among groups, and instead focus on developed practices—what households *did*, and what they said about what they did. They also examined how funds of knowledge were specifically informed and shaped by socio-historical circumstances, like Mexican-American border migrations, and intersecting networks of exchange between communities, families, and family members (Gonzalez, 2005).

Building trust, mutuality, and enduring relationships between working-class, Mexican immigrant families and teachers of dissimilar backgrounds was something that warranted attention in the data collection phase of the study conducted by Moll and

colleagues in 2005, particularly as there was often on the part of the teachers an “unawareness of the role of their privileged social position” (Hogg, 2010, p. 674). For this reason, reflective practices aimed at examining and challenging teachers’ held beliefs about their students and students’ communities were incorporated into the process. Following data collection, teachers formed study groups to discuss their research findings, mutually challenge assumptions, and support the development of their lessons.

Essentially, the funds of knowledge approach to curriculum development is a constructivist approach: “this framework situates the learner at the centre of teacher planning, and stresses the fundamental need for the teacher to build on what students already know—their prior knowledge, a crucial part of which is their FoK (funds of knowledge)” (Hogg, 2010, p. 674). The objective of utilizing funds of knowledge as a classroom tool was not to replicate what students already knew, but instead, to use funds of knowledge to extend familiar concepts and provide a scaffold for new learning (Amanti, 2005).

Deficit Theorizing.

According to Gonzalez et al., (2005), deficit theorizing about students’ home cultures and practices has historically dominated the discourse of educational institutions serving poor and minority youth. The idea espoused by proponents of funds of knowledge, that poor, minority students arrive at classrooms with a wealth of cultural and practical resources that would enrich classroom learning, is a direct challenge to the deficit model of teaching. Many of the writings that center on funds of knowledge invoke this distinction, identifying funds of knowledge as a critical response to a legacy

of deficit theorizing in education: “[funds of knowledge] contrasts sharply with prevailing and accepted perceptions of working-class families as somehow disorganized socially and deficient intellectually; perceptions that are well accepted and rarely challenged in the field of education and elsewhere” (Gonzalez, et al., 2005, p. 75).

In describing his experience as a young immigrant to the United States from Mexico, Garcia (2008), reflects on his values development outside of school: “My father and the extended family taught us respect for family, elders, and others, hard work, patience, and persistence” (p. 296). As a field laborer in his time spent away from class, Garcia’s knowledge of farming practices was notable, as was his fluency in the Spanish language. Unfortunately, the attributes acquired by Garcia outside of school went unrecognized in the classroom, if not looked upon with disdain, as he “realized that [he] did not do things at home that had value in the school culture” (p. 296).

An historical review of the Tucson project reveals the conceptual emergence of funds of knowledge as a response to the ubiquitous practice of deficit theorizing among American practitioners and educational institutions. In 1966, anthropologist, Oscar Lewis, developed the term, “culture of poverty” to describe a monolithic, negative view of poor, minority, urban students. As it became commonly acceptable in the 1960s and 1970s to attribute students’ educational failures to their supposed cultural deficits (Jensen, 1969; Paris, 2012), an “emphasis on ‘disadvantages’...provided justification for lowered expectations in schools and inaccurate portrayals of... children and their families” (Gonzalez et al., 2005, p. 90).

Cultural Fluidity. One of the key takeaways for researchers involved with the Tucson project was a deeper understanding of the fluidity and dynamism that characterized students' funds of knowledge. Even among racially, ethnically, economically, and linguistically proximate groups, the term "culture" proved to be problematic due to an implication of fixed typologies:

Because the term *culture* is loaded with expectations of group norms and often-static ideas of how people view the world and behave in it, we purposely avoided reference to ideas of culture. The term presumes coherence within groups, which may not exist. Instead, we focused on practice—what households actually do and how they think about what they do. In this way, we opened up a panorama of the interculturality of households, that is, how households draw from multiple cultural systems and use these systems as strategic resources. (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005, p. 10)

When I worked as a secondary school teacher in Boston Public Schools, it was clear to me that in my classroom of Asian-American, African-American, and Latinx students, that there was significant overlapping of culturally-based understandings and practices across ethnically distinct groups. Some of my African-American students, for example, would arrive at school each morning with freshly steamed *bao*, a Taiwanese bakery item, from the cake house that bordered the school. Racially diverse groups were invited to and often attended *quinceañera* celebrations, and, most students, whether of African, Latinx, or Asian descent, were well-versed in the language and culture of hip-

hop. Although these practices, cultural insights, or ways of being were likely cultivated in settings outside of the students' households, their validity as funds of knowledge cannot be discounted. Mercado, (2005) touches on the notion of cultural hybridity in an important way by drawing attention to the strong effects of socialization on students' cultural lives: "...socialization is a bidirectional process; novice and competent members of a community reciprocally stimulate new understandings and skills in each other" (p. 237). As an additional consideration on the topic of culture as a non-static entity, it is important to also recognize the profound effects that technology and social media have on the development of youth culture. In this age of advanced technology, the world is literally at students' fingertips, and young people today have innumerable chances for cross-cultural exchange.

In light of this evidence that places culture as a rather elusive target when it comes to funds of knowledge, it makes perfect sense for the funds of knowledge practitioner to gather evidence and descriptions of household and community practice over descriptions of culture. When culture is talked about in conventional terms, it implies rigidity, when in fact culture is anything but rigid. As I think about my own background, and how interculturality has defined my existence in terms of my upbringing, relationships, and exposures, these words ring true:

Cultures are not holistic unities of nations, classes, genders, ethnic groups of even 'communities', but are multiple and situated. Cultures are dynamic: not primarily thing-like products, but living processes wherein socially interactive and communicative people (re)create things and practices, and invest them with sense

and meaning. (Zipin, 2009, p. 324)

Culturally Relevant, Culturally Sustaining, & Reality Pedagogies

The idea that home and school (or community and school) should not constitute separate worlds, particularly with respect to urban and minority student populations, is not confined to the funds of knowledge scholarship. Other theories and approaches, for example, culturally relevant pedagogy, culturally sustaining pedagogy, and reality pedagogy, also decry a home/school dynamic that lacks congruence. Several examples from the literature explore the interaction of these domains and urge for their integration. As this study presupposes that the work of drawing from student funds of knowledge to scaffold global competence instruction requires a preliminary merging of home and school worlds, this section explores the ancillary benefits and other implications of a classroom environment that supports, sustains, and uplifts students' culturally-based knowledge and potential for classroom leadership.

Ladson-Billings (1995), in her seminal work detailing culturally relevant pedagogy, urges the systematic incorporation of student culture as official knowledge in the classroom. Citing a number of studies that similarly link home culture and classroom practice (Au & Jordan, 1981; Mohatt & Erikson, 1981; and others), and drawing from her own research, Ladson-Billings' case is made for the building of reciprocal, dynamic relationships between teachers and students as a way to affirm cultural identities, advance critical perspectives, and improve academic outcomes for minority students (Ladson-Billings, 1995). While students' home practices, and not culture, are the foci of funds of

knowledge pedagogy, some important parallels can be drawn between these two teaching orientations, particularly with regard to their implications for minority students. For example, there are a number of studies that highlight the potential negative effects of classroom practices that fail to value and incorporate students' culture. Deyhle (1995) and Kiang and Kaplan (1994) link minority student dropout, stress, anxiety, and at times, cultural disaffiliation with non-inclusive school environments. Gay (2000) explains, "Double dealing, or being at once highly ethnically affiliated and academically achieving can take a terrible toll on students when the two agendas are not complementary" (p. 19). Incorporating elements of students' out of school lives—whether cultural or as funds of knowledge—alleviates the toll of such "double dealing" by bringing needed coherence to minority students' potentially disjointed ethnic and scholarly identities. Funds of knowledge teacher-researcher, Gonzalez (2005), for example, remarks on the improvements seen in her Mexican-American students when their home practices were used to further curricular goals: "I saw high levels of academic engagement and insight in my students who had typically been labeled 'at risk' because of their demographic characteristics. I saw they were as capable of academic success as students from any other background" (p. 7).

Culturally sustaining pedagogy (Paris, 2012) is a response to culturally relevant pedagogy, which, instead of using students' cultural assets for the specific aim of making learning relevant, uses them to prepare students for a pluralistic society. This is important because, according to Paris (2012): "It is quite possible to be relevant to something or responsive to it without ensuring its continuing presence in a student's

repertoires of practice” (p. 95). As Paris (2012) recognizes the reality of a multicultural and multilingual present and future (due in large part to the forces of globalization) he sees the difference approach perpetuated by culturally relevant pedagogy as insufficient because it, like the deficit approach, maintains an expectation that students would “lose their heritage and community cultural and linguistic practices if they were to succeed in American schooling” (p. 94).

Emdin, (2016), uses reality pedagogy to bring a new conceptualization of teacher-student role reversal by placing students as repositories of knowledge when it comes to appropriate methods of teaching: “It posits that while the teacher is the person charged with delivering the content, the student is the person who shapes how best to teach that content” (p. 27). Emdin suggests this methodology is particularly useful in classrooms comprised of what he calls *neoindigenous* student populations--that is, students who have been historically marginalized by a dominant power, and who view themselves as separate from those in command (2016). In the American urban context, neoindigenous is a term that can be used to describe urban youth of color.

Because many American neoindigenous youth are taught by white teachers who do not share (or understand) their backgrounds and may make broad assumptions about who their students are and how they should learn, reality pedagogy brings the student as an *individual* to the center, effectively checking any tendencies to make pedagogical decisions based on what is assumed about students and/or their cultures. Further, this approach requires an acknowledgement of teacher-held preconceptions and biases that may get in the way of appropriately bringing content to students based on their individual

knowledge, experiences, and approaches to learning. By engaging in reality pedagogy, Emdin asserts, the more or less distinct home and school worlds referenced in the work of Ladson-Billings (1995), Paris (2012), and others, can be bridged in a powerful way, as teachers and students become collaborative architects of the classroom space.

Third Space

Paris, in his theoretical framework for explaining culturally sustaining pedagogy, draws from Gutierrez et al. (1999) and their development of *third space theory*. Within education, this is a theory that presents a conceptual space whereby home and school worlds are merged to create new educational understandings and realities (Gutierrez, 2008; Moje et al., 2004; Paris, 2012). Moje et al. (2004), conduct an exploration of this theory that explicitly positions funds of knowledge as a necessary contributor to third space. With a focus on literacy, they argue that, “active integration of multiple funds of knowledge and discourse is important to supporting youth in learning” (p. 41). Gutierrez (2008), presents the implications of third space pedagogy as particularly important for non-dominant groups, because of the binary nature of home and school lives, and the “contradictions in and between texts lived and studied, institutions (e.g., the classroom, the academy), sociocultural practices, locally experienced and historically influenced” (p. 149).

The literature depicts three theoretical perspectives on third space (Moje, et al., 2004). The first locates third space as a geographical site, emphasizing the physical and social places where people come into contact (Soja, 1996). In an educational setting the

classroom can ostensibly serve as the geographical third space where primary (home-based) discourses (ways of knowing, writing, talking, reading), and secondary (outside of home-based) discourses merge. Bhabha (1994) in another perspective, places third space in a postcolonial context whereby symbols, through discursive processes, undergo a transformation to take on new meanings and realities. The third, and perhaps most educationally relevant conceptualization of third space, is the one developed by Gutierrez, Baquedano-Lopez, Tejeda, et al. (1999). Interestingly, in this portrayal, third space is seen less as a site for the development of new ideas and realities, but instead represents a locus for bridging home and school worlds to scaffold and facilitate the learning of academic content (Moje, et al., 2004). Several studies devoted to the incorporation of third space in academic settings have reported gains in academic engagement and achievement (2004).

Research Questions

As this chapter explored the potential links between the following concepts: global education, global competence, funds of knowledge, culturally/relevant/sustaining/reality pedagogies, and third space theory, an important next step of this study was to more pointedly investigate the ways that these concepts might intersect in practice. The following research questions were developed with this goal in mind:

To what extent do teachers in urban public schools consider and draw from their students' funds of knowledge in the development of global competence?

1. *What are the funds of knowledge that teachers believe their students possess, and*

how did they learn about them?

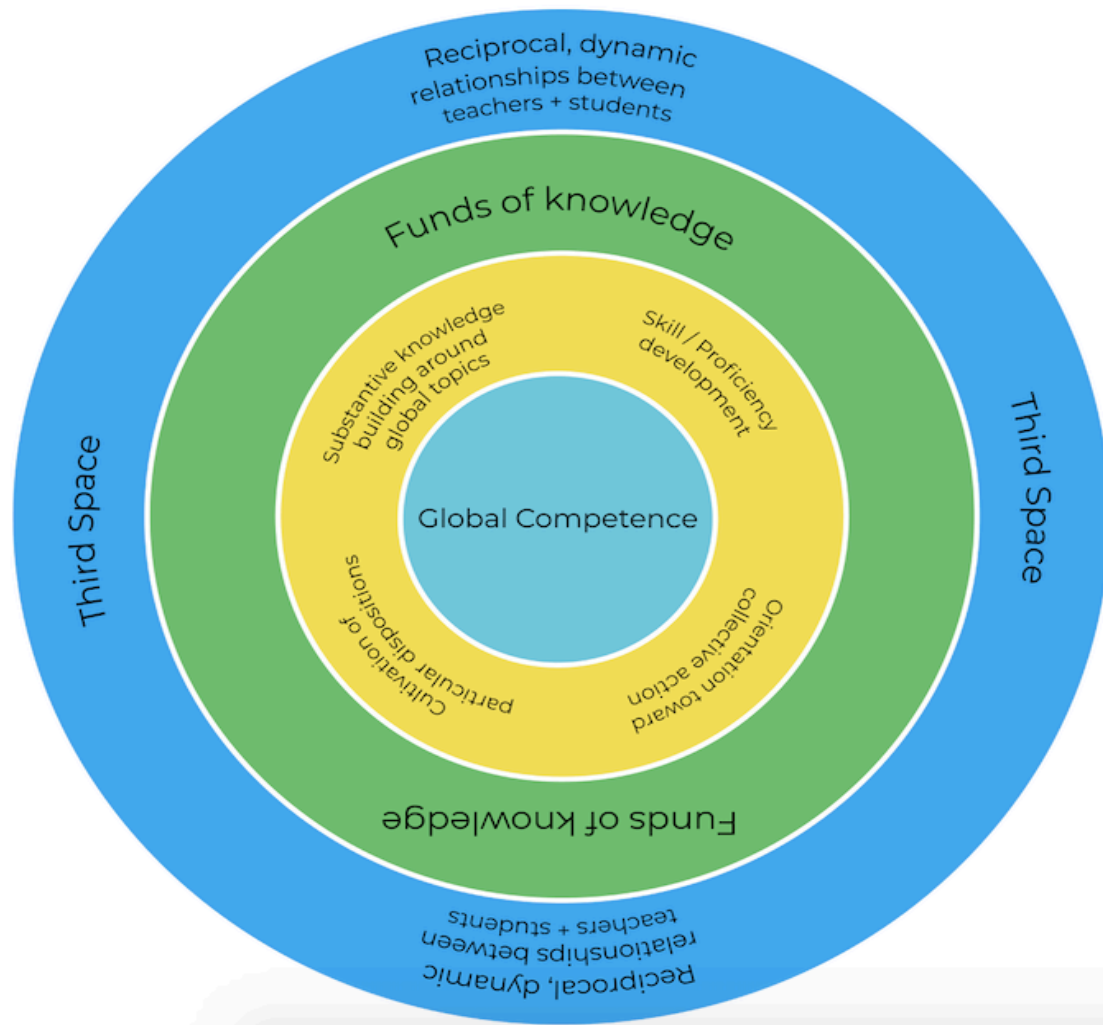
2. *What are teachers' experiences with teaching for global competence and/or drawing from students' funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence?*
 - a. *What do teachers describe as the constraints and affordances that impact their likelihood of doing this work?*

Conceptual Model

The conceptual model developed for this study similarly draws from the extant literature to arrive at a clearer understanding of how these concepts interact (Figure 1). In this model, reciprocal, dynamic relationships and third space are the foundational elements comprising the outermost circle, and are representative of the conditions under which funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies are most likely to occur. Next, student funds of knowledge relevant to the prospect of global competence—identified and accessed by the teacher—comprise the second largest circle. Using these funds of knowledge as an instructional scaffold might then lead to the attainment of the four global competence domains positioned within the third circle: (1) skill/proficiency development; (2) substantive knowledge building around global topics; (3) orientation toward collective action; and (4) cultivation of particular dispositions. Finally, global competence, the model's intended outcome, is placed at the center.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model

Fok - GC Conceptual Model



Chapter Summary

In the preceding sections, I have reported and reflected on literature relating to the two main concepts that are the focus of this study, global competence and funds of knowledge. Beginning with an exploration of several frameworks for global education, I attempted to locate global competence within this broader topic, and identified four

consistent themes that would help with the process of defining this often elusive term. Those themes are: (1) skill/proficiency development; (2) substantive knowledge building around global topics; (3) the cultivation of particular dispositions; and (4) an orientation toward individual and collaborative action. From there, I delved into the literature that explores funds of knowledge and related theories, such as those involving culturally relevant pedagogy, culturally sustaining pedagogy, reality pedagogy, and the spatial and ideological nexus that is the third space. Finally, an articulation of this study's research questions and conceptual model, both grounded in the extant literature, were presented.

This study explores teachers' engagement in activities that identify and utilize students' funds of knowledge when global competence is an intended curricular and/or developmental goal. It also aims to validate an assumption that the integration of these two concepts, global competence and funds of knowledge, is something that would be best undertaken in an urban setting, given the greater likelihood of students' minority status and/or exposure to diverse cultures. As such, this chapter builds toward a methodology and conceptual framework for use in theorizing global competence practice that draws from students' funds of knowledge.

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

Introduction

This qualitative study utilized interviews as a method for better understanding the experience of urban teachers as global competence educators, particularly, how they might draw from their students' funds of knowledge to support and scaffold global competence development. This chapter outlines and addresses the specific details of the methodology employed. Here, information is organized into the following sections: 1) Research Questions; 2) Research Design and Approach; 3) Participants and Recruitment; 4) Data Collection; 5) Data Analysis; 6) Schedule; 7) Role of the Researcher; 8) Validity; 9) Limitations; 10) Ethical Considerations; 11) Summary.

Research Questions

This study sought answers to the following questions:

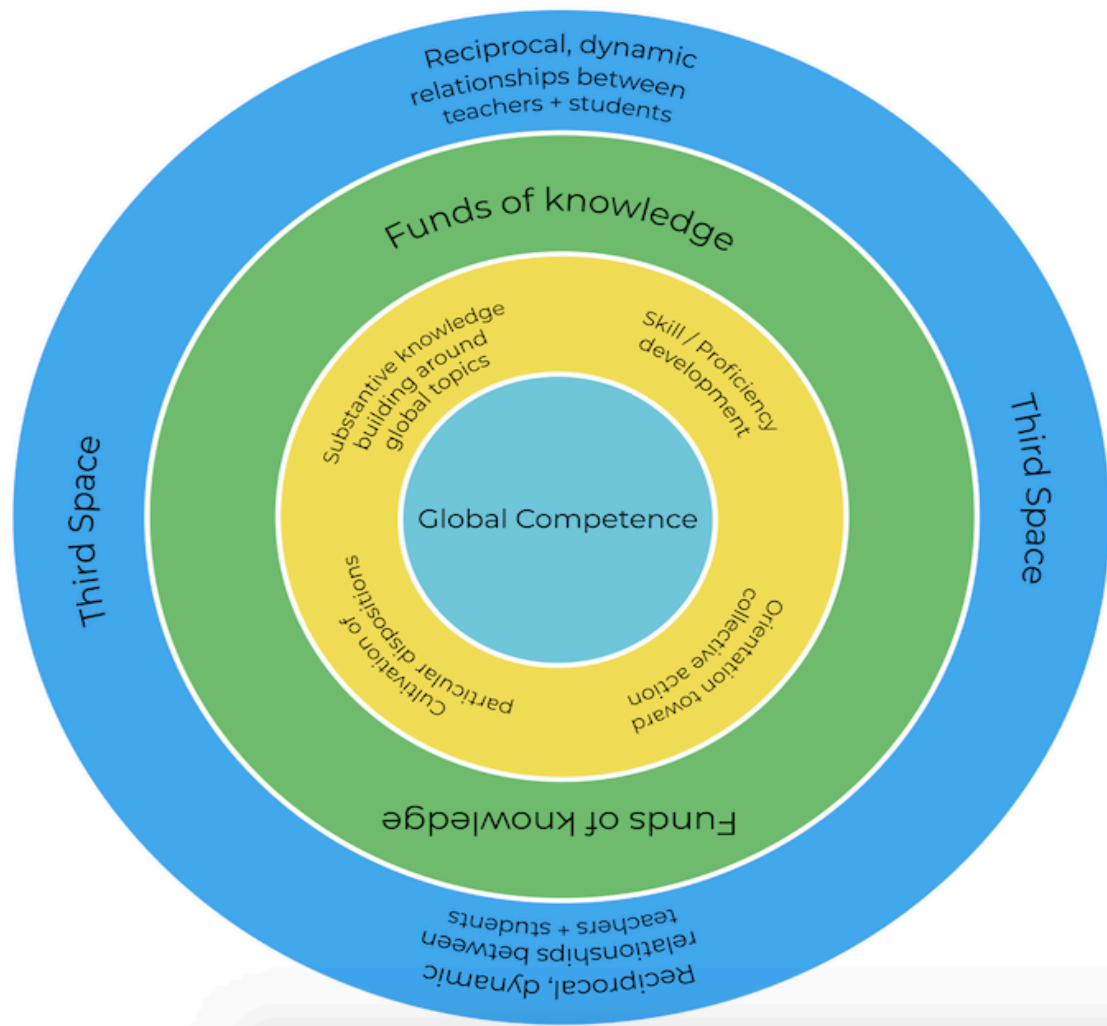
To what extent do teachers in urban public schools consider and draw from their students' funds of knowledge in the development of global competence?

1. *What are the funds of knowledge that teachers believe their students possess, and how did they learn about them?*
2. *What are teachers' experiences with teaching for global competence and/or drawing from students' funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence?*
 - a. *What do teachers describe as the constraints and affordances that impact their likelihood of doing this work?*

Conceptual Model

The conceptual model developed for this study, and displayed below, draws from the literature in its construction and was conceived of as a way to explain how funds of knowledge might be utilized in the pursuit of global competence. In this model, reciprocal, dynamic relationships and third space are the foundational elements comprising the outermost circle, and are representative of the conditions under which funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies are most likely to occur. Next, student funds of knowledge relevant to the prospect of global competence—identified and accessed by the teacher—comprise the second largest circle. Using these funds of knowledge as an instructional scaffold might then lead to the attainment of the four global competence domains positioned within the third circle: (1) skill/proficiency development; (2) substantive knowledge building around global topics; (3) orientation toward collective action; and (4) cultivation of particular dispositions. Finally, global competence, the model's intended outcome, is placed at the center.

Fok - GC Conceptual Model



Research Design and Approach

To answer the research questions, I adopted a phenomenological research approach because it allowed me to consider and draw conclusions that were based on the multiple realities of participating teachers. This was appropriate because, according to Hays & Singh (2012), “the purpose of phenomenology is to discover and describe the

meaning or essence of participants' lived experiences, or knowledge as it appears to consciousness" (p.50).

According to Maxwell (2013), two specific strengths of qualitative research are (1) its ability to elucidate the processes by which a phenomenon occurs, and (2) to understand the context(s) within which a phenomenon occurs. Therefore, qualitative design was chosen as most appropriate for this study, because the identified research questions sought to understand the processes by which funds of knowledge and global competence integration might take place within the context of urban schools. The use of interviews granted access to participants' reflections, perspectives, and experiences, while operating within these settings.

Participants and Recruitment

The participants in this study were recruited from my professional network of Boston-area teachers and their referrals, through snowball sampling, to other teachers of interest. Selected participants were teachers who either expressed an interest in or claimed to have used funds of knowledge and/or global competence pedagogies in their respective classrooms. As I had worked as an educator in the Boston-area for ten years prior to this study, and developed a number of contacts, I was able to reliably draw from my relationships in sourcing candidates who were willing and able to speak with me about their experiences. Initial outreach occurred via email (Appendix A), private messaging on social media, or through text messaging. After agreeing to participate in the study, a mutually acceptable time and location was then arranged for the interview.

Prior to meeting, a consent letter (Appendix C) was sent via email to participants, informing them of the nature of the study and their rights as a participant. The letter listed my contact information in the event of questions. In the case of referrals, the email script was either forwarded by the initial contact or sent by me. Once I personally made contact with the referred participant (via email or private messaging), we designated a mutually acceptable time and location for conducting the interview, and a consent letter was sent.

Purposeful selection is a strategy that is used to ensure that participants involved in research are able to provide information that is relevant to the goals of the study (Maxwell, 2013). Weiss (1994) maintains that those selected for participation should be “people who are uniquely able to be informative because they are expert in an area or were privileged witnesses to an event” (p. 17). In order to maintain purposeful selection, priority was placed on the 30 teachers who: (1) were at the time, currently teaching full-time in an urban setting, and, (2) had been teaching in an urban school for at least the past three years, as it was assumed that teachers who fit these qualifications would be best able to provide insight into the questions being explored. (3) Expressed either an interest in or claimed to have experience with using funds of knowledge and/or global competence pedagogies. Extra care was taken to put together a diverse group of participants with respect to age, years of experience, gender, race, discipline, and school type, and proportional groups of elementary, middle, and high school teachers were sought after to identify distinctions in practice.

The participant sample included 30 teachers whose demographic breakdown is as

follows: There were 26 females and 4 males included in the study. Eleven identified as White, 7 were Black, 4 Asians, 2 of mixed race, and 6 identified as other. Of that group, eight reported Hispanic ethnic identity. The majority of teachers, eighteen, to be exact, fell within the 30-39 age range. Five were between the ages of 40-49, four were 20-29, and three were 50 and above.

Regarding their professional backgrounds, twenty-eight teachers relayed that the highest level of education that they had attained was a master's degree; one had a bachelor's degree; and one reported having a doctorate. Six of the teachers taught primarily at the elementary level; 13 were middle school teachers; and 11 taught at the high school level. Fourteen teachers reported having taught for 11 or more years; ten teachers had been teaching for 6-10 years, and six teachers had between 3 and 5 years of teaching experience. Finally, there were 6 English/language arts teachers; 5 humanities teachers; 4 elementary; 3 ESL/SLIFE; 3 history/social studies/civics/geography teachers; 3 art/theatre/music teachers; 2 in mathematics; 2 who taught more than one subject; 1 teacher of a world language (Spanish); and 1 science teacher.

Data Collection

One-time interviews were chosen as the primary means of data gathering because the aim of this study is to arrive at an understanding of teachers' awareness of student funds of knowledge and how they use those funds of knowledge to scaffold global competence learning goals. Interviews with participating teachers were conducted on a one-to-one basis, in person, and were audio recorded by the researcher. A semi-

structured interview protocol (Appendix D) guided the discussion where teachers were asked probing questions that prompted them to describe, among other things, their students' funds of knowledge and their classroom practices (both in general sense, and in the development of global competence). The interviews, scheduled to last no more than 60-90 minutes, were typically conducted in a relaxed atmosphere that was conducive to the open sharing of ideas. Demographic information for each participant was self-reported on an intake form, which was later transferred to a data spreadsheet.

Data Analysis

As a first step in the process of data analysis, I developed a codebook that housed the theory-driven themes and their descriptions that I believed would assist in answering the research questions. At this point, a total of fifteen codes were identified and recorded. Next, the interviews were transcribed--mostly through use of the paid transcription service, www.rev.com, although one transcript, due to sound quality, was transcribed by me. Then, I conducted an initial, thorough, reading of the interview transcripts--while simultaneously listening to audio recordings--to check for accuracy and grasp an understanding of the 'whole picture'. Also, during this beginning read, I wrote memos to capture my initial reactions to the data. I knew that this was an important step in my process because "memos not only capture your analytic thinking about your data, but also *facilitate* such thinking, stimulating analytic insights" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 105). The memo writing process was continued for the entirety of the data analysis phase.

According to Maxwell, "the goal of coding is... to fracture the data and arrange

them into categories that facilitate comparison between things in the same category and that aid in the development of theoretical concepts” (2013, p. 106). With this goal in mind, I began my coding process in earnest. After uploading the transcripts to NVIVO, linking participant demographic information to each transcript, and reflecting on the data, I selected three interviews, two of which I believed were fairly representative of the whole. These transcripts were initially coded to ‘open up’ the data, “label[ing] [each noteworthy] passage of data with a code based on understanding of what that passage was about” (Bazeley, 2013, p. 125). The resultant emic, or data-driven codes, were written into the codebook already containing the pre-existing etic, or theory-driven, codes that I purposefully selected from the literature for their relevance to the research questions. Then, the etic, theory-driven codes were applied to those first 3 transcripts for additional insights. Lastly, the identified emic and etic codes--as well as new emergent codes--were applied to the remaining transcripts. At this point in the process, a total of 91 codes were included in the codebook.

Relying on description as an analytic strategy because it “provides you with a non-threatening entry point to the process of writing and further analysis” (Bazeley, 2013, p. 228), I took pen to paper, and attempted to describe what I ‘saw’ across the data. My musings were added to my previous compilation of memos, and included my ideas involving not only what the data portrayed in an explicit way, but also what they suggested more implicitly. As a next step, I constructed pattern codes, also known as explanatory or inferential codes (Miles & Huberman, 1984), to identify broad, more abstract, concepts which were organized, applied to the data, and considered in terms of

their relevance to the study's research questions. Bazeley (2013) says that pattern codes have the ability to: "abstract from the data [and] are useful across documents; they also link to the broader field of knowledge" (p. 232). The pattern codes that I developed evolved to become the thematic findings that were considered in light of the extant literature and used to explain the research questions.

According to Bazeley, "formal or general theory is defined as a unified, systematic causal *explanation* of a diverse range of social phenomena" (2013, p. 329). In theorizing the findings from these data, the conceptual framework was looked to as a way of explaining the phenomenon of practical integration of funds of knowledge and global competence, but it was also understood that upon learning new insights, that model might be subject to amendment. With this consideration in mind, I asked the following questions while examining the coded data: *What were the most frequent codes identified? What was common? What was distinct? How can these findings be explained by the conceptual framework? What is a plausible explanation for what is happening? What do existing theories fail to explain?*

Research Schedule

The study followed the timeline shown below:

Activity	Date
Participant Recruitment	November 2015 – September 2017
Teacher Interviews	November 2015 – October 2017
Data Analysis	September 2017 – December 2017

Role of the Researcher

As someone who understands teachers' struggles (from my own professional experience), my hope and assumption was that I would be able to attain some level of trust from the participants, and that trust would facilitate collaboration and the construction of shared understandings. I informed participants that I was primarily concerned with their thoughts and experiences relating to this topic, and was explicit with participants about my motivations for engaging in this study—that although I am a champion of funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies, I am still trying to figure out how they can be successfully integrated and put into practice in the urban classroom. To safeguard against personal bias throughout my process of data analysis, I engaged in reflexive practices such as regular memo-writing (Patton, 2015) and peer debriefing to force myself to constantly scrutinize my assumptions about the data and participants.

Validity

Attempts to ensure the validity of this research study and its findings were made through conscious reflection and deliberate action on my part. My closeness to this topic (as a former Boston-area teacher) and, potentially, to individual participants, was a recognized threat to the validity of this study. I was also aware of the prospect of bias in my data selection decisions and interpretations. My awareness and attempts to enact a logical approach to mitigating validity threats was enhanced by a number of strategies. The first strategy was the collection of rich data. These data were “detailed and varied

enough so that they [provided] a full a revealing picture of what [was] going on” (Becker, 1970, pp. 51-62). By conducting in-depth interviews and having those interviews transcribed verbatim, I reduced the chance of selecting data that would specifically support my inherent biases, and as a result, had a relative wealth of data from which to draw my conclusions. I also engaged in critical self-reflection throughout the memo writing process, as well as peer debriefing.

Limitations

Because this study was geographically limited to the Boston area, many of the findings may be specific to this particular region, and not easily generalizable to other urban settings. For example, the high immigrant populations found in many Boston-area schools may not be reflective of student populations in other urban centers.

Also, because participants in this study were drawn from my professional network and their referrals, a limitation of this study may be that the participants shared particular characteristics that are not typical of the general population. However, by employing purposeful selection, I took care to select participants from the pool of volunteers who would be best able to provide information relevant to my research.

Ethical Considerations

As this study enlisted participants that were over the age of 18, not incarcerated, not pregnant, and not cognitively impaired, the potential for ethical issues to be raised was minimized. Additionally, the topic of investigation was not sensitive in nature, and as such, the study did not elicit any major ethical concerns.

The protection of human subjects was maintained through specific steps: 1) All participants received a consent letter that informed them of the nature of the study and their rights as a participant. 2) Prior to the start of interviews or field investigations, participants were informed of their right to stop the interview or refuse questions. 3) In the event of emotional, physical, or other distress, participants were given the right to terminate or postpone the interview. 4) All paper documents relating to this study were stored in a locked cabinet at my primary residence. Interview transcripts and field notes were electronically stored (password protected) on Express Scribe, NVivo software, my personal hard drive and Google Drive, and were anonymized. 5) Any other written reports on these data and findings were also anonymized.

Chapter Summary

We live in an increasingly interconnected world, and as a result, there is a greater need for students to be globally competent—to be able to think about and act on issues of global significance. Urban teachers, specifically, often work with diverse student bodies that bring various intercultural connections to the classroom, so one might assume that they would be well positioned to teach in ways that promote global competence. In urban settings comprised of racial, ethnic, and/or linguistic-minority students, especially, a logical but likely underutilized facilitator of global competence would be instruction that draws from students' funds of knowledge.

This study utilized qualitative interviews and a rigorous process of analysis to investigate how teachers in urban public schools might draw from their students' funds of

knowledge to further global competence curriculum goals. And, in this chapter, the research methodology employed to engage in this work was described in detail. This study is significant for its potential to make a contribution to the larger bodies of global competence and funds of knowledge scholarship, as this is an area of research that remains relatively unexplored. It is also significant for urban teachers, school/district leaders, and policymakers who support the use of funds of knowledge in the classroom and global competence as an instructional goal.

CHAPTER 4: Research Findings

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate urban teachers' understandings and uses of student funds of knowledge in the development of global competence. This chapter provides an overview of the themes that surfaced from qualitative data in 30 interviews with Boston-area teachers conducted between November 2015 and October 2017. This presentation of data addresses important themes that surfaced from these interviews. Here, narrative descriptions of identifiable themes are provided and substantiated with interview excerpts, where appropriate. A summary of thematic findings is provided at the end of each section.

Accessing and understanding student funds of knowledge

Interviews with teacher-participants revealed dominant themes that provided some insight into teachers' perceptions of students and the unique funds of knowledge that they possess. In their interviews, teachers also described in some detail, their interactions with students and families and various means of gaining access to student funds of knowledge. Each theme is presented below with evidence from the data.

Theme #1: Patterning funds of knowledge along demographic lines.

According to the interview data, teachers understood that student funds of knowledge were varied and influenced by individual experiences. However, when looking at the data holistically, it was evident that teachers' depictions of student funds of knowledge

followed patterns that corresponded to certain demographic qualifiers. The funds of knowledge of groups of students who shared an ethnic distinction, for example, Haitian-American students, or groups of students who shared a common SES status, were characterized in particular ways. This was true not only for teachers who worked with students who lived in the same neighborhoods and constituted local communities, but also across schools, across neighborhoods, and even across the Greater Boston area.

For example, in depicting the experiences and the funds of knowledge of their low-income Asian American students, teachers reflected on the substantial amount of time that they spent at home without parental supervision (often due to parents' demanding work schedules). Many of these parents worked in or owned restaurants across the city and neighboring suburbs, and worked irregular hours, as noted by David, a White, secondary humanities teacher:

If your parents worked restaurants, they might work from 10 to 10. They come home after you're in bed. They're still in bed when you leave for school. They work on weekends to only see their kids on Monday nights when they have a day off. I know that might be true for some of our students.

While there seemed to be some negative impacts of students spending so much time alone--for instance, poor homework completion and school tardiness--in bearing the responsibility of self- and sibling-care these students possessed unique funds of knowledge that often translated to greater self-sufficiency. Linda, a Black, high school humanities teacher with a majority Asian-American student population, reflected:

I know that they tend to be independent when they're home. Their food is left for them to cook, they're getting dressed... They can function at home or whatever systems they have at home, it works relatively well. There's no violence, there's no shooting, no assault problems or anything like that.

Notably, these statements, depicting students as almost entirely self-reliant as a result of the amount of time that they spent home alone due to the nature of their parents' work, were only brought in reference to low-income Asian-American students.

Another distinct theme that emerged from the interviews placed certain students as part of extensive family networks that were typified by collaboration and social interaction. Latinx students were often described as belonging to these family networks, spending significant time outside of school with extended family members such as aunts and cousins. The presumed funds of knowledge deriving from these activities varied, but included mediation/negotiation, event planning, and knowledge of life in another country through the experience of visiting family members overseas. One elementary teacher participant, Rosa, who identified as White Hispanic, remarked on how many Latinx students had extensive family networks with whom they spent a considerable amount of time on weekends and after school:

[In] the Latino culture, family is very involved. There's a lot... like my kids talk about the weekend, they're with their cousins, aunts and uncles are over, grandma might even live with the kids. There's definitely a lot of family around at all times, so even when things get difficult, they know that they have family, which is great.

Lucy, a White teacher in a 2-way dual language immersion school with a majority Latinx population, provided some insight into the specific funds of knowledge that she believed her students gained from these experiences.

Many of them are doing quinceañeras. It's the big thing. There's a lot of family trips either to D.R., Puerto Rico. Even if they're not trips, there's a lot of family get togethers on the weekends... I know that they're usually big gatherings, big family gatherings. There are a lot of personalities to negotiate. Getting to know yourself and who you get along with and then dealing with family drama.

Interviews revealed that many students of Haitian descent were known to routinely interact with extended family as well, however for these students, some of whom immigrated to this country in the aftermath of the 2010 Haitian earthquake, the circumstances were a bit different. Noah, a White teacher participant at an alternative school with a significant Haitian immigrant population, discussed the unconventional living situations of some of his students, and how many of his students have had to endure significant cultural shifts as they migrated from one country to the next and from one set of family members to the next:

The ones from Haiti, their culture is interesting because a lot of them live with people who have come to the United States before them. Their aunts, or their uncle or somebody who has been here for awhile. They will travel here and live with them. They might have a different culture than the family that they are living with...

Caitlin, a White teacher at different school with a large number of Haitian students, discussed the adaptive assets of her students by reflecting on the apparent father-centrism of Haitian families, not necessarily because of particular cultural norms, but because many of these students migrated to live in the United States with their father (who likely migrated first), while the mother remained in Haiti: “Usually the mother does not visit but they do keep up a relationship. I don’t know if it’s a Skype sort of situation or email or phone calls, but there is relatively frequent contact.” Caitlin also noted that many Haitian students spend a portion of their time, especially on weekends, engaged in church-related activities: “All the community gets together for church most Sundays”. Sandra, another teacher, herself of Haitian descent, reflects on the weekend journals that her students complete each week: “...A lot of it is usually, ‘Oh, I went to church’. That’s mostly the Haitian kids.”

Teachers also included descriptions of the activities of other students in their classrooms to provide insight into their potential funds of knowledge. Some teachers taught in schools where increasing economic diversity (often along racial lines) due to gentrification or school zoning, resulted in the emergence of distinct types of funds of knowledge of within their classrooms. Economically privileged students were known to have international connections, but these were typically forged through experiencing other countries as tourists or as temporary ex-pats. Caitlin described her economically privileged students in this way:

I think a lot of the wealthy families travel pretty extensively. All the kids are gone for three weeks at a time because their parents are doing research or a

sabbatical or something. Sometimes even six months at a time. I've had two or three every year. All over the world.

The assumed funds of knowledge imparted by travel for tourism or parent professional work manifested as knowledge of what life is like in other parts of the world. Additional funds of knowledge possessed by this group included self-advocacy and negotiation (usually to get one's own way). It is worth noting that with the exception of the economically privileged students, (who were typically white and non-immigrant), the funds of knowledge of lower-income non-immigrant students were not described in detail when teachers were asked to give examples of the skills, knowledge, and practices of their students that they believed were not taught in a classroom setting. Instead, the funds of knowledge of immigrant or economically privileged white students were remarked upon.

Theme #2: Typifying dichotomies of exposure. Exposure was a theme that readily and repeatedly emerged from teacher interviews. Several teachers remarked on the types of exposure that students were receiving outside of the school setting, and some expressed a belief that there were specific types of exposure that optimally positioned students for global competence learning. Exposure to global information, current events, ideas, and foreign cultures, specifically, were perceived as a boon to global competence development, whether that exposure was provided in school or out. It was often voiced however, that exposure that came from home was an especially strong determinant of global competence readiness. One Asian teacher at a selective entry secondary school,

Ada, explained: “I think, in terms of funds of knowledge... a lot of global competence comes from what’s spoken around the dinner table, what kids are exposed to, what they’re reading at home, what their parents are saying at home as well.” A related sentiment was echoed by Sophia, an Asian teacher at a non-selective secondary school. As she explicated her own desires for student preparedness, remarked:

I guess it would be more helpful if they [students] were exposed to things in their home lives than at school and then build on it... I think it would be helpful if they followed the news or were up to date with what is going on the world. I think it would be helpful if their families did talk about it at home, like what’s going on... if families modeled collaboration, having prior experience would help.

According to some teachers, student exposure to activities that lend to these types of funds of knowledge can either be purposefully introduced or the result of the home culture that a student was born into. For students from particular backgrounds, exposure was often characterized as purposeful, strategic, and cultivated, and the result of having access to privileged information and experiences. Melissa, a White sixth grade humanities teacher reflected on the activities that her largely Asian student population engaged in after school and on weekends:

I’d say that a group of students that I have outside of the school, have a very structured life on weekends where there is not a lot of free time. They have either Chinese school or they have prep classes or their tutoring... I would say there is one particular group of students that I see regularly in my classes that have very

structured lives.

As we can see from Melissa's quote, participation in structured after school activities characterized the out of school time experienced by some students, and was the source of much of the exposure that these students were known to receive. According to another teacher, Paula, a White theater arts teacher at the same school, these students:

...don't talk so much about their home life as they do their activities... they have these experiences that their parents are giving them [and] they come back and are like, 'I just saw this great show!' ... The kids who are traveling, like, come in and share their experiences.

Conversely, for students with limited access to these sorts of information and experiences, exposure seemed to be the result of being steeped in family culture, and not necessarily the result of structured activities. According to some teachers, this is often the case for low-income students who directly emigrate from particular countries (often other than China) or have lineage that traces back (in recent generations) to another country. While this type of exposure was also seen as beneficial, there were some clear distinctions and limitations. For example, teachers like Lucy, who worked in a Latinx-majority school, believed these students to be knowledgeable about the culture and other aspects of life pertaining to the country to which they had familial ties, but had limited awareness of the world outside of that. She said: "Then, I've seen other more recent immigrants who might know a lot about their own country, possibly region. They tend to be pretty nationalistic. They know some things maybe about the Latino world, not so

much globally”. These sentiments are echoed by Paula, the theater arts teacher:

[Kids are aware of] maybe their own vicinity, or just where their family’s from, I think they’re clear on that. But, I don’t think they understand very much more outside of that... They know all about what it means to be a Latino, but do they know what it’s like to be a Syrian child?

These sentiments aside, Lucy saw that despite students’ nationalistic tendencies or hyper-focused global knowledge, this information could be used as a springboard that leads to a broader awareness of the globe, and potentially, global competence: “But, [if] they do come with... family stories or whatever else, if given that bridge, I think that they can easily make connections to global stuff.”

Whether exposure was the result of concerted effort or immersive experience, teachers in this study believed that having exposure to information, culture, and ideas had some bearing on students’ preparedness for global competence learning, and for learning in general. In their responses, teachers often dichotomized the nature of the exposure students received, placing it into either one of two camps: exposure that was purposefully introduced or exposure that was the result of being steeped in family culture.

Theme #3: Privileging specific funds of knowledge. When asked to identify what they believed were the home-derived practices, skills, and knowledge that their students arrived at school with each day, teachers in this study were able to name a variety of potential funds of knowledge. It was clear through their responses,

however, that some teachers viewed certain potential funds of knowledge in a more favorable light than others, and as a result, privileged some for use (or for their potential use) in the classroom. The following is a list of the funds of knowledge that were identified:

- Knowledge of what life is like in another country through having lived or visited there
- Proficiency in another language/ability to translate for others
- Caretaking of siblings, or other family members (often through parent's job as childcare worker, or as family responsibility/role)
- Knowledge of running a restaurant (through parent's job)
- Car repair and other trades (through parent's job)
- Owning, managing a YouTube channel to spread a message or explain a process or concept
- Mediation-negotiation-diplomacy through navigating parental divorce or other difficult family relationships. Also, just managing relationships among extended family.
- Navigating the city and being "street smart"
- Events planning (i.e., for a *quinceanera* or other large family or cultural gathering)
- Supplementing household income through selling merchandise on social media sites
- Resilience in the aftermath of a difficult situation

Teachers generally had positive things to say and were impressed by students who had the experience of either living in or visiting foreign countries. They made connections between these experiences and certain skills/dispositions that could lend to global competence, like empathy and perspective consciousness. Caitlin described a student in her class:

For this kid in particular, it [his empathetic disposition] was [the result of] his family's experience moving from Palestine and living in a society that doesn't always support Palestinians. And, having family that's still there and forcing themselves to have really difficult dialogues with people they don't necessarily agree with.

As well, substantive global knowledge was an obvious benefit that resulted from the experience of global travel. Students who had spent time abroad appeared to teachers to be better positioned to take part in important classroom conversations. According to Rebecca, a White middle school teacher: "...if they traveled to other countries, they're just more knowledgeable about things, and they have more opinions, and they're more willing to engage". These students were often more than just passive observers of the conditions and ways of life abroad; they also had rich immersive experiences that imparted a deeper understanding of global issues and varied perspectives. Noah, for instance, shared how his Haitian immigrant students brought this kind of knowledge to classroom discussions:

When we look at the world in the class and we try to figure out what is going on,

what is wrong with the world, what is right in the world, they can bring a lot of their experiences to it, like living in Port-au-Prince and seeing one-half of the city and the other half of the city in different economic situations. They can bring that experience.

Most of the time, it was clear that teachers, like Devon, an African-American history teacher at a middle school, held a belief that students “bring a wealth of knowledge from their own life experiences to school and it’s important that [teachers] tap into that”. Teachers also expressed that certain life experiences in particular--for example, having lived in another country--imparted specific knowledge and dispositions that would be useful in scaffolding for global competence. At other times, however, teachers’ interviews revealed the existence of particular funds of knowledge that were deemed less desirable for use in the classroom context. For example, Ximena, an Hispanic middle school English teacher, talked about how she wanted her students to understand the distinct nature of home and school worlds, and that, invariably, some funds of knowledge deriving from the home setting should be characterized as non-transferrable: “things that you learn at home will not necessarily benefit. It’s good knowledge to [have] but now that we’re in school, there’s a different way of seeing and approaching things.” Lucy’s interview got at the specific ways that “dark” or undesirable funds of knowledge counteracted the specific values and understandings that she as an educator tried to inculcate. As one example, she reflected on her students from the Dominican Republic, who as a result of their experiences and exposure to the beliefs of family and others, began to take on an insular and potentially bigoted personal

disposition: “Their parents lived in DR at the time of Trujillo. There was a lot of nationalist brainwashing that went on. There’s a lot of undoing for some of our students that we [educators] have to do.” Similarly, Noah, talked about his lesson on global injustice, and how some of his students, while understanding basic concepts of racism, were challenged by his lesson on misogyny because at home, they had been steeped in cultures that promoted machismo. He also imagined that discussing issues like gay marriage in this classroom might have brought about a similar challenge as it can all depend on “whether they [the students] are of religious backgrounds or not”.

In this study, teacher participants readily identified the of funds of knowledge which they believed their students possessed. These funds of knowledge derived from a variety of experiences, from international travel, to domestic chores, to accompanying their parents at work. Among these, international travel or the experience of having lived in another country were viewed as most favorable by teachers, while undesirable funds of knowledge included those which imparted values and ideas considered to be antithetical to the values and ideas put forth by the teacher and/or curriculum. While a next step for the more positively received funds of knowledge might be a bridging of home and school worlds to scaffold learning for global competence, the “dark” or undesirable funds of knowledge were shunned by some teachers, discouraged, and/or challenged through the introduction of new ideas.

Theme #4: Leveraging shared experiences and identities in pursuit of *confianza*. In their interviews, teachers often reported feeling more successful with making student and family connections (to gather funds of knowledge information) when

they shared the cultural, ethnic, linguistic, and/or racial background of their students. Overall, relationships between teachers and students, and between teachers and families, were developed in a variety of ways depending on individual circumstances. However, a dominating theme was that the sharing of personal information between parties was often mediated by trust that was imparted through shared identity. Melissa, a teacher who identified as White, reflected on her interactions with families: “The parents who have opened up [to me] look like me; They’re white. They’re the ones that will talk to me a little bit more about their lives.”

Being able to converse in the student’s home language was of equal importance in building relationships between teachers and families, particularly--but not exclusively--in communicating with parents who had limited proficiency in English. Lakshmi, an Asian civics teacher of Indian heritage, was not a heritage Spanish speaker, but still fluent in the language, shared how her Spanish proficiency allowed her to bridge home and school worlds. She also reflected on how her relationships with certain families at the school was markedly different than the relationships forged between those same families and some of her non-Spanish speaking colleagues:

Yeah. I think particular to Latino families, something that makes our relationship different is that I do speak Spanish fluently, and I work on a team of teachers where no one else does. So, I am the kind of bridge between school and the home... If there’s communication that needs to go either way, it goes through me... It makes parents more vulnerable towards me in a way.

Another, and perhaps more evident sub-theme that emerged from the data relating to teachers' relationships with students and families and the establishment of *confianza*, was that shared experience--typically around immigration--was an important contributor to building trust. Many teachers remarked that both students and families who hailed from other countries were better able to relate to them--and vice versa--because the teacher and/or his or her own parents immigrated to the United States at one point in time. Dina, a Black, Caribbean-American elementary school teacher remarked: "...More often I see the students' parents [who] are not from the U.S. I can relate [to them] because my mom is not from here. I think I can connect..."

Among the teachers who brought up their shared connections with immigrant families in their interviews, it was clear that teachers' perceptions were that country of origin, language, and sometimes, racial identity, were of little importance in the establishment of *confianza*. Instead, an understanding of the immigrant experience in general was of greater importance. Rosa, an art teacher who hailed from Portugal, remarked:

So, I immigrated here when I was young. I had a very similar story, except I'm White, and obviously that changes my experience... But then once they know that I also immigrated, and I speak Portuguese, and I speak Spanish, they soften up a little bit--the kids and the parents.

Lakshmi, the middle school teacher whose parents immigrated from India, taught a diverse group of students that included immigrants from Vietnam, Cape Verde, and the

Dominican Republic, among other countries. In the passage that follows, she speaks about how she used her experience as a child of immigrants as a gateway to understanding the lives of her students outside of school:

We talk a lot about life outside of school because one thing that I have in common with a lot of my students, not all of them, but a lot of them, is that our parents all immigrated here. And so there's some things about that experience that are shared regardless of where your parents immigrated from. And so we definitely spend a lot of time talking about the similarities and differences there. We spend a lot of time talking about our relationships with our parents and those dynamics and how we make meaning of having parents who grew up in a different place.

Overall, from the interview data, we can understand that teachers who shared an identity, language, and/or experience with their students often saw themselves as better positioned for establishing *confianza*, or mutual trust, which, according to the literature, is a prerequisite for gathering funds of knowledge.

Theme #5: Communicating with families. Ethnographic work by teachers played a central role in Moll and colleagues' foundational work on funds of knowledge. In this study, teachers, through their interactions with students' families, gathered information about culturally-based home practices which were later utilized to enhance classroom instruction. While none of the teachers interviewed in this study admitted to carrying out funds of knowledge methodology in a literal sense, they did engage in the work of communicating with families, and some were able to gather information about

the funds of knowledge possessed by their students through these interactions. The interview data revealed that for the most part, communication between teachers and families centered on student (academic) progress, however, there was some variation in topics and in the nature of these interactions that tended to fall along demographic (race/class/immigrant status) lines. As far as methods of communication were concerned, teachers' practices varied widely, from sporadic outreach to scheduled systems of interactions.

For many teachers, the initial point of contact with families was through a school-wide open house or an introductory email/phone call home, during which, one might assume, an overview of course topics and student expectations were relayed. After the first month or two of the school year, however, topics discussed with families were more centered on student progress and performance, and this seemed to typify the nature of family-teacher conversations, in general. Devon, a participant in the study, reported that despite some attempts to engage families in the broader school community, "most of the time, [his] communication with parents [was] around the progress of their students". For Devon, who, like many of his students, identified as black and grew up in this particular neighborhood, reaching out to parents was only "occasionally to get them to be a part of--or continue to be a part of--the community in various ways." Melissa, a white humanities teacher at a different school, reported: "I see a lot of the parents...and all of them want to know immediately how their child is doing. They want to make sure that they are doing well."

The nature of parent-teacher conversations, as well as families' expressed

desires/concerns for their children vis-a-vis the classroom, showed some variation along demographic lines. One humanities teacher who self-identified as Asian, Anh-Ly, characterized her interactions with the families of a proportionally small number of affluent students in her class in this way:

...The majority of [this group] are white and they live in the nicer [part] of the South End or in the North End. These are the parents who are very educated, very active in school and want to be considered as involved in the classroom...I learn about their outside experience, where they are going for ski trips, what kind of classwork they're missing because they are going for a family vacation. What extra work [their children] can do because they now have extra tutoring.

Ada, another Asian teacher, worked at a school with a selective admissions process, and remarked upon the levels and nature of interactions between teachers like herself and distinct groups of parents:

I would say in terms of power in the school, they're [white, privileged parents] the most vocal. We have a big Asian population here as well... Theirs is more ivy league oriented... we don't hear from the parents quite as much, or if we hear from them... It's more like, 'My kid's grade isn't as high as it could be'... And then the Latinos, I would say of them, their parents are probably the least vocal.

Among other teachers, and particularly those who work with immigrant students, family-teacher interactions were typified by families' requests for "help" with their children, discussions about parent work, and a limited ability to communicate due to

language barriers. According to the data, these parents seemed to be particularly challenged by the prospect of managing their responsibilities as both parents and breadwinners. In Devon's class, his discussions with parents often centered around: "...how hectic their lives are as working parents who may have one or multiple jobs... About balancing their many jobs and their responsibility as a parent, as well as their responsibilities in their work life to provide for their families."

Sandra, a Haitian-American elementary school teacher, in reflecting on her specific conversations with families of students hailing from Vietnamese and Haitian backgrounds, echoed: "A lot of it is work, work, work... 'I'm working. I'm working really hard... We live with aunts, uncles, cousins, and whatever, but everyone is working so much.'" Likewise, the immigrant families with whom Lachelle, a Black high school English teacher, interacted, brought up the issue of parent work, but also requested assistance from the teacher in areas where they felt their own agency was limited:

A lot of the times the conversations are 'I work a lot', 'I want my child to do well', 'I work a lot; please help them'... A lot of students don't speak English or speak English as a second language, so the conversation is 'they need to practice English, they need to do well. I can't help them. If they need to stay after school, please keep them.' So, that's very frequent.

Sometimes, as was the case with Amy, a middle school mathematics teacher who identified as White, these conversations remained at a surface-level: "parents will usually explain their working situation or work, school, what they're doing... but we don't

engage in a lot of conversation about it”. Sometimes, these conversations were inhibited by language barriers due to the limited English proficiency of families (and, conversely, a lack of teacher proficiency in other languages). However, many of these families were still known to establish, at least, initial contact with teachers, and they frequently called upon students and/or designated school staff members to act as translators. Lachelle, in reflecting on the families of her immigrant students, stated: “In 9th grade... I see a lot of parents who don’t necessarily speak English, but they just want to show their face and let you know that they are present in their child’s life.”

It is worth noting here that the specific examples of family-teacher communication offered by teachers involved, for the most part, depictions of interactions between themselves and either affluent families and/or immigrant families of color. Few to none of the examples directly described interactions between teachers and non-immigrant, low-SES, families of color. In schools that were diverse in a true sense, with enrollments of both white and non-white students, low- and high-SES students, etc., teachers frequently brought up distinctions between privileged and non-privileged family groups. In schools with immigrant populations, teachers’ experiences with immigrant families were often described.

Review of Themes

An investigation of qualitative data addressing teachers’ understandings about student funds of knowledge and their experiences with accessing them unearthed the following themes: (#1) Patterning funds of knowledge along demographic lines; (#2)

Typifying dichotomies of exposure; (#3) Privileging specific funds of knowledge; (#4) Leveraging shared experiences and identities in pursuit of *confianza*; and (#5) Communicating with families. Below is a summative description of the findings for each theme:

- (1) **Patterning funds of knowledge along demographic lines:** Teachers' depictions of funds of knowledge were characterized by demographic qualifiers that often related to students' race, ethnicity or SES status. The perceived funds of knowledge possessed by certain ethnic/immigrant groups--specifically, Asian, Haitian, and Latinx--were described by multiple teachers, as were the perceived funds of knowledge of affluent, white students. The funds of knowledge of low-income, non-immigrant students were not described in detail.
- (2) **Typifying dichotomies of exposure:** Funds of knowledge imparted through exposure to global information, current events, ideas, or foreign cultures, was seen as a strong contributor to the development of global competence. When this exposure was provided in out-of-school settings, it was either the result of structured activities and cultivation (typical of affluent families) or immersion in the culture of one's heritage (typical of immigrant families).
- (3) **Privileging specific funds of knowledge:** Teachers recognized various funds of knowledge that they believed their students possessed, but seemed to prefer some funds of knowledge over others. Generally speaking, teachers placed a premium on funds of knowledge deriving from the experience of overseas travel and/or

having lived abroad, while disparaging certain other sources of funds of knowledge, like exposure to environments that perpetuated bigoted or closed-minded ways of thinking.

(4) Leveraging shared experiences and identities in pursuit of *confianza*:

Teachers who shared an identity, language, and/or experience with their students often saw themselves as better positioned for *confianza*, or the mutual trust that is a prerequisite for gathering student funds of knowledge.

- (5) Communicating with families:** Teachers, as they spoke about their communications with families, described a primary focus on student progress and performance, with, again, some variations that fell along demographic lines. Affluent families were depicted as being vocal advocates for their children (particularly around student grades), while immigrant families shared with teachers information about their exhausting work lives and requests for support in ‘helping’ their children. In their interviews, teachers rarely described interactions with families who did not fit in either of these two categories.

Reflecting on Experiences with Global Competence and Funds of Knowledge

When prompted to do so, teachers articulated their personal experiences and thoughts pertaining to funds of knowledge/global competence concepts and pedagogies. And, across the data, patterns of teacher perceptions and practice were evident. While there were no teachers in the study who reported having had the actual experience of teaching a complete unit or lesson that was aimed at developing global competence

through accessing students' funds of knowledge, interviews with these educators offered valuable insight into engaging in this work in classrooms. In the section that follows, prominent themes from the interviews have been presented and thematically arranged.

Theme #6: Conceptualizing global competence. There were several examples from the data suggesting that teachers' understandings of global competence, what it entails, and how it might relate to funds of knowledge, were either incomplete or misinformed. Many teachers, for example, struggled with providing a clear description of the qualities of a globally competent student, and frequently interchanged terms like 'global competence' and 'cultural competence'. Additionally, most teachers in this study expressed a belief that funds of knowledge and global competence were related in some way, but they failed to clearly articulate an expansion of this idea.

While teachers in this study were not directly asked to offer a comprehensive description of global competence (i.e. one that includes all of its components), in seeking a way to gauge their conceptual understandings of the term, participants were asked to "describe a student, either current or former, who in [their] opinion, really embodied what it means to be globally competent". In their responses, some teachers made references to students with whom they had had enduring relationships, who defied the odds, or who were particularly impressive in some way, while often neglecting to directly address global competence-related themes or attributes. For example, one Black teacher at a charter school, Karimah, described her globally competent student by highlighting some of his unique qualities, but did not really explain how these attributes lent to global competence:

...He was like a forty-year-old man in a twelve-year-old's body... I just think he was an outlier... On the first day of school, he came up to me and was like, 'I'm sorry. I haven't introduced myself to you. My name is XXXX'... He just asks me these very thoughtful questions and is just very well read... [he's] this little enigma doing his own thing... I mean, he would watch the Daily Show...

Similarly, another teacher, Lucy, focused almost exclusively on the determination exhibited by one of her former students, who she believed was globally competent:

"She's just incredible... She looks, she finds a way, and she understands, 'These are things that are my struggles, and these are barriers that I have to find a way around'".

Ximena, a teacher at a different school, similarly neglected to connect the qualities of her student example to global competence. She instead shared: "He had a [strong] work ethic... he was on time, he followed all the rules."

Importantly, these articulations are not representative of the entire sample, as several other teachers in their descriptions of a globally competent student included at least one global competence attribute; however, none of the depictions aligned with a comprehensive definition of the term. Caitlin, for example, described a student with an action orientation toward issues with potential to impact the globe, but did not touch upon other aspects of global competence. She said: "He's Palestinian and he doesn't necessarily want to go do work on behalf of Palestinians. He wants to [work on]... nuclear weapons in the Middle East and the rights of civilians. Just really interesting and thoughtful for a 14 year old." In a similar way, David only described the broad-minded disposition that he noticed in one of his high school students: "[He] understands the

basic concept that point of view matters. When we talk about history, when talking about documents that are created. When we talk about literature, [he asks] what is the point of view of these characters or authors?” Dina, in her interview, focused on her student’s quest to expand her global competence skill set: “She’s from Brazil, [and is] here undocumented... She knows a lot and she’s well researched. She’s well read... She wants to learn Spanish and be more proficient...” Lastly, Nadia provided insight into the origins of the substantive knowledge possessed by one of her elementary school students: “His family is from Morocco and he’s Muslim and he speaks Arabic and English... He has to know what life is like in Morocco, because his family still lives there... and also know what Boston is like.”

Providing further insight into teachers’ conceptual understandings of global competence, in certain interviews, the terms ‘cultural competence’ and ‘global competence’ were used interchangeably. While the intentionality here remains unknown (whether they meant to say global competence or cultural competence), the existence of this pattern may provide some insight into teachers’ overall understandings of this concept. The following quote from Jason is indicative of this occurrence:

...To influence students’ global competence, actually, at my school, there’s tons of study abroad trips... you see it advertised all over the school... We’re going to Ireland, some teachers are taking kids to China, or some teachers are taking kids to Vietnam... certainly there’s a lot of travel and trip opportunities for students. That’s probably the biggest thing that I see in terms of cultural competence.

Universally, teachers' responses were varied, and often unclear, when it came to describing what they understood were the potential relationships between funds of knowledge and global competence. However, most expressed a general belief that global competence and funds of knowledge were in some ways interrelated. Jessica, for instance, believed that the two concepts were inextricably linked: "I think there is a relationship between the two... I think they do relate and I think if you don't have the funds of knowledge, you cannot be globally competent". Lakshmi's thoughts were similar: "I think you can't have global competence without funds of knowledge... I think [global competence] very much requires that you are acting on the skills and decisions that you have learned in other places".

To recap, despite a general understanding that funds of knowledge and global competence have some relational aspects, teachers' responses to certain interview questions reflected a lack of clarity around these terms, in particular, global competence. Teachers, as they were prompted to describe a globally competent student, provided descriptions that were not fully inclusive of the distinct elements that comprise global competence. Perhaps, this was to be expected, as teachers in their interviews were not directly prompted to give a comprehensive description of global competence. Some participants also confused the term, 'global competence', with another term, 'cultural competence', and seemed to have difficulty with clearly articulating how global competence and funds of knowledge were related.

Theme #7: Exercising agency as curricular-instructional gatekeeper. In this study, the vast majority of teachers expressed having some degree of autonomy in the

selection of topics and activities for use in their classrooms, providing insight into how funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies might be enacted when not included as part of a prescribed curriculum. The potential for curricular and instructional decision making was evident across the spectrum of school types that were represented by participating teachers--from traditional public schools, to charter schools, to selective exam schools, to pilot schools². One teacher, Maria, reflected on her ability to make these decisions: “I do have a lot of choice. I have a lot of freedom, and, I think again, this school is really good about letting teachers make big decisions.”

The extent to which teachers exercised their autonomy seemed to be influenced by particular factors, such as the availability of resources, standardized assessments, perceived student need/interest, teacher interest, and/or current events. Typically, curricular decisions were the result of a combination of a number of these factors, depending on context and individual preference. For instance, Isobel, an elementary teacher at a pilot school, alluded to the flexibility that was embedded in her process of decision making: “I think most of the choices that I make are based on, there’s a combination of the curriculum, the standards, and also the students--like what they need, what I want them to think of.” Similarly, Rebecca, a teacher at a traditional public school, described how she took an improvisational approach to curriculum development: “So, I did have a textbook, and I would follow along with parts of it. Then, other parts, I would do on my own... A lot of it was, depending on what was going on politically that year, and then, what my students were interested in, and we would do units on that.”

² Pilot schools are schools operating within a larger district, but have autonomy around curriculum, staffing, and budget.

In their responses, teachers often identified restrictions or limiting factors affecting their ability to take full control over their curricula. In these instances, teachers would typically concede a portion of their influence, but would also ‘fit in’ topics and activities driven by other interests where possible. For example, Lachelle, in her interview, talked about how despite having an expectation to cover prescribed literary texts in her high school English language arts class, made changes to her curriculum to address current events: “So, for the most part, our curriculum, I guess the novels are decided for us... And then sometimes... you tweak the curriculum based on things that are happening in the world, which I think is also really important.” Likewise, Devon, a middle school civics teacher, described his plan of study that was shaped by both obligatory curriculum guidelines and what he believed would be of interest to his students: “We have a dynamic set curriculum with overarching themes and guiding questions, essential questions. But, a large portion of what drives my curriculum is student interest.” In Jade’s interview, a lack of time was cited as a limiting factor in her ability to make significant change to existing curriculum. In order to address the needs and interests of her elementary students, she would often utilize the daily read-aloud as a way to introduce new topics:

I feel like when I’m making a choice about what I get to teach, I’m trying to sneak it in somewhere... Anytime I want to address some sort of issue in the classroom or in the broader society or something that I think is important for us to talk about, I’m really just tucking that in where I can find time. So, I’ve done a lot of that through read-alouds, through just finding a book that I think will bring up a

conversation that I want to have.

Despite not being asked direct questions relating to the 2016 U.S. presidential election or subsequent Donald Trump presidency, these events were recurrent themes in teachers' interviews. Overall, the Trump election and presidency seemed to have a significant effect on classrooms, and teachers exercised their agency as curricular-instructional gatekeepers by connecting their curricula to these events. While some teachers, like Jessica, who identified as White and worked in an elementary setting, approached this subject from a purely informational standpoint, "...[to cover] what was going on in the news and what the priorities were and what the big topics were", more teachers reported that their actions were guided by a need to address particular Trump-related concerns that appeared to directly impact their students. For example, Jade, an Asian teacher at the same school, in connecting one of her student's disparaging behaviors to rhetoric emanating from the presidential campaign, reflected: "So, after the election, I did a whole series of read alouds because I had some comments made by one of my students that were very racist and threatening [that] just needed to be addressed." Other teachers, most notably at the middle and high school levels, refocused their curricula to address Trump's immigration policies due to their potential impacts on the lives of many of their students. Lakshmi reflected:

Last year, we learned about Donald Trump's plan to revoke birthright citizenship from the children of undocumented immigrants, which, for a lot of my kids, was them. Like, they would be the people who would've been affected by a policy

like that... We wrote letters to Trump... We talked about what would happen if you had a whole group of people who were a citizen of nowhere... What are the implications of that? What would it mean if people were stateless?

Lakshmi's above quote, in fact, exemplifies the approach taken by many of the middle and high school teachers who decided to address Trump's policies in their classes. In addition to considering students' interests and the potential impacts of the election on their lives, teachers enacted shifts in their curriculum that were purposefully tailored to meet specific content or skill-related goals. Lachelle gave a glimpse into how she accomplished this:

Yesterday, for example, we talked about thesis statements, and we talked a lot about Donald Trump, and some of the conversations that were happening in the Latino community around some of his policies and claims. And, so it was a good way to engage students, and to [hear] what they were thinking... but still driving home the need to write a thesis statement.

Maria, at another school, relayed how a lesson on crafting an argument was enriched in multiple ways by incorporating issues raised by the election:

A lot of kids were concerned about the election last year, and we were delving into accuracy... how to develop an argument based in facts, and what is a fact versus opinion. I think I was able to make this dry lesson a bit more applicable, and more hitting home for them... I think it [also] helped with their reaction to the election.

Devon allowed not only his students' interests to drive the curriculum, but also drive the method for engaging with election-related content:

As you know, this election year we had a candidate who spoke pretty vehemently about immigration, and what he plans to do. And, our students were incredibly engaged in that. They were writing letters to this candidate. This wasn't an idea of my own, but it as an idea from a student who wanted to revamp the curriculum.

In addition to teachers' articulations that their curricular and instructional decisions were at least partially motivated by the needs and interests of their students, many also shared how their own identities, values, and convictions had been a driving force in shaping their overall practice. With some teachers of color, especially, racial identity was particularly salient. Jason, for example, shared the impact of his racial and gender identity on his instruction: "...My teaching reflects how I view things in society. I'm a bi-racial male teacher. Being a male teacher of color I certainly have a perspective of how things should be taught or what education should mean. That...reflects how I teach". Drawing from a similar theme, Deborah, a Black, high school English teacher, described how her selection of course materials was guided both by student needs and her perceived responsibility to address those needs as one of only a few teachers of color at her school: "There are several books that I have ordered, because I've felt that students needed to deal with these [issues] that they wouldn't get... in anyone else's class, because I'm a teacher of color. I do [Toni] Morrison... We're reading Song of Solomon..."

Teachers were also moved to adapt their curricula based on personal interest and values. One case in point, Isobel, a teacher who moonlighted as a part-time herbalist, shared: “I believe in teaching children to connect to the Earth, so a lot of the things that I do that may not be directly connected to the curriculum [are] around loving each other, loving the Earth.” Caitlin said of her choice to implement a unit on rhetoric and public speaking: “[Public speaking] is not necessarily in our curriculum, but it’s something that I value having in there.” While other teachers, like Dina, spoke in more general terms about personal interests driving curricula: “One of the big things for me is that... it needs to be interesting to me. If I don’t find it interesting or I’m not passionate about it, I’m not going to teach it.” Overall, personal desire and mindset were driving factors that motivated teachers to act as a curricular-instructional gatekeepers. Lakshmi said: “You can do it [make changes to curriculum], but it’s a mindset that a teacher has to have.”

As many teachers shared that they had some degree of autonomy in crafting the curriculum that they delivered to students, we learned that as curricular-instructional gatekeepers, teachers’ decisions to make changes to existing curricula were mediated by a number of factors, including: availability of resources, standardized assessments, perceived student need/interest, teacher interest/values, and current events. Specifically, current events believed to have a direct impact on students’ lives--for instance, Donald Trump’s immigration policies--were often the instigators of curriculum redirection, as were topics which were of personal significance to teachers.

Theme #8: Navigating Constraints. With only minor exceptions, teachers did not allude to their students’ perceived skill or knowledge gaps when reflecting on

potential impediments to the delivery of funds of knowledge and/or global competence curricula. Instead, they pointed to two main preventative factors: (1) pressures emanating from school, district, or state administrators relating to mandatory assessments, curriculum standards, and pacing; and (2) prospective backlash from the community in response to teachers' engagement with students around contentious topics.

Even in schools where educators were granted wide curricular freedoms, some teachers reported feeling compelled to narrowly focus or direct their topics of study so as to better align what students were learning with existing curriculum standards and assessments. Amy, a middle school math teacher, is one such example: "My principal does give me a lot of freedom with what I teach and how I teach it... My ultimate goal is to maintain fidelity to the Common Core standards... That's what the kids will be assessed on and what I want to make sure I'm prepared for." Noah, as he considered the steps he might take to build a global competence lesson into his existing curriculum, remarked: "It's a little tricky because I'm trying to synthesize all of these things together into this idea of global competence and it doesn't necessarily align with the standards that we teach." In a related way, as Karimah reflected on an upcoming challenge to develop a new curriculum, she recalled the restrictions she faced while engaging in a similar activity the year prior: "I'm really excited... because next year is the first time ever that I'm really designing a curriculum. Even when I was teaching first grade, I did a little bit, but I was really hesitant because I was like, 'These kids need to read', by the end."

Among some interviews, there was a common understanding that teaching for global competence was a better 'fit' for some content areas than others--not so much

because of its disciplinary appropriateness, but simply because some topics were assessed (by the state) and some were not. Rosa, a visual arts teacher, explained this sentiment clearly:

As an art teacher, I have more flexibility. Yes, I follow standards, but I can create any lesson to fit a standard. If you're a teacher who teaches ELA and your kids are being tested and you're having to do MCAS or whatever, I mean, even if you are aware of the need for culturally responsive teaching or whatever, it's harder because the change needs to come from the system. Because they're the ones giving you your curriculum.

Lakshmi viewed her position as a civics teacher as both appropriate and fortuitous for engaging in the work of teaching students to be globally competent: “So, I’m lucky because I teach civics, which means... it’s not tested. And, it’s also supposed to be about right now.” In contrast, Amy, as a mathematics teacher, felt routinely pressed for time, and limited as far as what she could accomplish outside of her focused lessons and curricular schedule:

...it just doesn’t leave a lot of opportunity for me to engage in conversations with the students and everything seems very urgent all the time. I’m rushing to get to the next thing with the students. Even though I’m very interested in something that a student said, I know it might derail the conversation and I have so much to cover.

Lakshmi, in her interview, suggested that curricular restrictions that are the result

of standardized testing and rigorous pacing schedules come with consequences which have an overall negative impact on students' ability to become globally competent. Here, she commented on the lack of substantive knowledge that students typically acquire as a result of a skills-focused and assessment-driven curriculum:

One of the biggest challenges is that knowledge is in short supply in schools right now... there's such a focus... on standards and skills... you don't learn 'what' anymore. You learn a lot of 'how', but it's like, how about nothing? So you don't build deep knowledge or understanding of global issues.

Separately, patterns emerging from the data also suggested that teachers sometimes avoided certain classroom topics out of fear of backlash from the community (i.e. parents, school administration), particularly when those topics were political in nature and/or charged in some way. Jason, a biracial (White and Black) civics teacher, in remarking upon the considerable vetting process that he routinely engaged in prior to the enactment of a curricular decision, admitted: "Students' cultural reference points and what they're hearing at home from their parents definitely has an impact on what we talk about in the classroom." Some other teachers, like Paula, acknowledged her outright avoidance of particular topics for fear that they would exacerbate the political divisions in her class: "Honestly, I've kept away from a lot of politics in my advisory..."

Awareness and subsequent avoidance of contentious issues was a more common practice in schools with increased race- and class-based student diversity. Two teachers in the study shared their experiences with being on the receiving end of community

backlash for curriculum or activities that they engaged in with students. One teacher, Rosa, talked about an International Day of Peace activity in her classroom, in which students were instructed to share an artistic message depicting an issue that they felt strongly about. One student addressed the issue of police brutality and murder of young black men in the United States. In her interview, Rosa reflected on the negative attention that ensued:

...The parents got upset enough where, I guess one of them took a picture of it, put it on Facebook, and all these other parents were like, "Oh, my God, this doesn't belong in a school. Blah, blah, blah." They called the superintendent's office to complain, they called the mayor's office, and they called the media.

At a different school, another teacher, Jessica, was urged by her students' parents to change the direction of her curriculum in the wake of Donald Trump's election:

We covered the election at the beginning of the year... That was really difficult when the actual election happened because the kids were so split. We had parents really pushing back [saying], 'I want you to be really careful about what you're teaching them about this'. It was hard, really, for me as a teacher...

Overall, as teachers relayed their perceptions regarding the limiting factors influencing their ability to engage in funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies, two main sub-themes emerged. Specifically, teachers identified pressures stemming from curriculum standards, assessment, and pacing, and the avoidance of topics due to fear of backlash as the predominant reasons that they might not be

successful in this regard.

Theme #9: Recognizing Affordances. Across the interview data, teacher participants were able to identify the affordances that they believed would either support or improve their chances of success in implementing funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies. Specifically, some teachers, particularly those at the high school level, cited enrichment programs that provided opportunities for students to travel abroad as particularly compelling, while teachers across schools--in elementary, middle, and high schools--most commonly alluded to classroom diversity as a positive contributor to the prospect of engaging in this work.

While international enrichment opportunities often occurred in isolation and were typically only available to select groups of students, they were experiences that, according to Lucy, imparted “a whole new view of the world”. Participating teachers identified three main provisioners or types of program-based travel abroad experiences: (1) through partnered organizations that provide summer volunteer or enrichment experiences, like *Summer Search* or *United Planet*; (2) through school-sponsored trips, organized by individual or groups of teachers; (3) through student conferences aimed at fostering intercultural collaboration among students (who attend International Baccalaureate (IB) schools).

In teacher interviews, there were no direct inquiries about the existence of these programs--whether they were available to students--or how, if at all, they impacted teaching and learning. However, descriptions and references to these opportunities did sometimes surface while engaging in conversations, implying, at least, their tangential

relevance to the research topic. With few exceptions, value judgments about enrichment programs were not provided in the interviews, although some teachers did touch upon enrichment program-related activities and their presumed benefits vis-a-vis global competence. For example, David, who taught at an IB school, described how opportunities to attend the annual IB World Student Conference gave some of his students a rare chance to engage with youth from other countries:

We regularly send students on their own to the IB World Student Conference. Sometimes it's outside the US, sometimes it's not... Students had roommates from Egypt, roommates from Malaysia. Even though the great majority of students were American, they still had an international experience they wouldn't have had otherwise.

Continuing with the idea that gaps in global competence-building experiences might be addressed through opportunities like the IB World Student Conference, Sophia, a teacher at the same school, described this conference as an opportunity to develop global competence in her students, as she had not been able to do so in her math classes: "...in math it's hard to see where they're [working] on important issues that impact the globe, but with the World Student Conference... students usually have to work together to [do that]... they're working together with students... from other countries."

Some other teachers, like Lucy, instead provided a more general description of enrichment trips and related activities, while neglecting to remark upon the residual effects of these opportunities or their implications for the classroom: "We have a number

of students who go to Summer Search... They went to Nicaragua. The Spanish teacher took a group of students last year to Peru... We do have a number of kids who do service projects.” Similarly, Lachelle, in reflecting on a former student, described how: “He [did] a number of these travel programs. He became involved in two different trips after that. He spent a lot of time volunteering, I believe, in the Dominican Republic...” And, David, in providing a partial overview of his school’s student travel offerings shared that: “...Students participate in other summer programs which go abroad. They might do Summer Search in Costa Rica for example. A few years ago, XXXX took some students to Mongolia. XXXX has taken some kids to Montreal.”

Seemingly, international travel opportunities led by teachers have become increasingly common in Boston-area schools. As such, David’s mention of school-sponsored travel led and organized by an individual teacher or a group of teachers was not a unique occurrence--particularly among the interviews with high school educators. Jason, for example, remarked: “at my school there’s tons of study abroad trips. I’m not necessarily involved in it. There’s a bunch of teachers that do. You see it advertised all over the school...” David, however, did recognize a potential drawback of programs like these: they were largely dependent on fundraising, teacher availability, and teacher willingness to organize the trips. He shared his specific concerns on the matter: “Part of the difficulty is everybody’s busy. People have children. People have families. People have lives. If it’s not built into the structure of the school, then it comes down to if there is a teacher who’s willing to do it.”

Another apparent challenge was that sometimes families were hesitant or

unwilling to grant the permission needed for students to take part in these opportunities. Linda provided the following example of a student whose mother prevented him from taking part in a travel experience with United Planet:

United Planet... They have students go abroad. We had three students who were accepted. One is a Chinese girl, one was an African boy, and then the black American boy didn't go. Just because his mom was scared of him going [abroad]... I said, 'It would really open his eyes', and she said, 'well, the world is just so unsafe, I don't want him going to Ecuador'.

Sophia, recalled a similar experience, this time with a student who was slated--and then prevented from--attending the IB World Conference:

We found out that parents weren't at first, very comfortable sending their kids on a trip... I think one student was going to go [to the IB World Conference] and was ready to go, but her mom decided, 'oh no, we're not gonna have her go, we're gonna do a program at BU or something'.

A perhaps more widely recognized source of opportunity for the implementation of funds of knowledge/global competence pedagogy was student diversity within the classroom setting. Nearly all teachers in the study described their classrooms and school environments as being exceptionally diverse--whether from a racial, ethnic, or an economic standpoint. This diversity imparted specific benefits relating to funds of knowledge and/or global competence instruction, for example, perspective consciousness. Ada reflected:

I do see a lot more diversity here than in other school districts. Both in terms of racial and ethnic diversity, but also socioeconomic diversity; and I think that's really good because you get a lot of different perspectives when we have class discussions.

Jessica, in speaking about classroom diversity, reflected on the segregated nature of Boston-area neighborhoods, and its potentially negative effects on students' lives outside of school: "In the Boston area... neighborhoods are very segregated. Outside of school, you may not have interactions with anybody of a different race or a different culture". In light of that reality, however, the classroom space was often characterized as a locus for sharing and collaboration across racial, ethnic, and/or economic lines. According to Lachelle, students inevitably must come to realize that: "the people sitting next to them don't necessarily look like them and don't have the same experiences... [but they] have a lot to learn from each other." Elvira, another teacher, pointed out: "even though you may not be directly in the country or have direct contact with a huge population within that culture, you're still getting exposed to aspects of it, which is helpful".

Overall, there were two main affordances with respect to funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogy that teachers either explicitly identified in interviews or were gathered from their responses. These included travel abroad opportunities for students, and classroom diversity. In regard to the former, teachers' reflections generally lacked nuance in defining how, in either a potential or a real way, these opportunities would have an effect on their practice. With respect to the latter, teachers recognized the

diverse classroom as a site for the cultivation of perspective consciousness and collaboration across cultures.

Review of Themes

Four themes emerged from the data with relevance to teachers' experiences with global competence and funds of knowledge pedagogies. Those themes were: (#6) Conceptualizing global competence; (#7) Exercising agency as curricular-instructional gatekeeper; (#8) Navigating constraints; and (#9) Recognizing affordances. Below is a description of the summative findings for each theme:

(6) Conceptualizing global competence: Teachers' understandings of global competence, what it entails, and how it might relate to funds of knowledge, were either incomplete or misinformed. Many teachers, for example, struggled with providing a clear description of the qualities of a globally competent student, and frequently interchanged terms like 'global competence' and 'cultural competence'. Additionally, most teachers in this study expressed a belief that funds of knowledge and global competence were related in some way, but they failed to clearly articulate an expansion of this idea.

(7) Exercising agency as curricular-instructional gatekeeper: Most teachers reported having some degree of autonomy in deciding course topics. As curricular-instructional gatekeepers, teachers' decisions to make changes to existing curricula were mediated by a number of factors, including: availability of resources, standardized assessments, perceived student need/interest, teacher

interest/values, and current events. Specifically, current events believed to have a direct impact on students' lives were often the instigators of curriculum redirection, as were topics that were of personal significance to teachers.

(8) **Navigating constraints:** Teachers' responses pointed to two main preventative factors in their perceived ability to enact funds of knowledge and/or global competence pedagogies. Those factors were: (1) prospective backlash from the community in response to teachers' engagement with students around contentious topics; and (2) pressures emanating from school, district, or state administrators relating to mandatory assessments, curriculum standards, and pacing. Notably, few teachers in the study identified student deficits as reasons for not engaging in this work.

(9) **Recognizing Affordances:** Interview data revealed that: (1) travel abroad opportunities for students, and (2) classroom diversity, were affordances that had the potential to support or increase teachers' ability to enact funds of knowledge and/or global competence pedagogies in their classrooms. In regard to the former, teachers' reflections generally lacked nuance in defining how, in either a potential or a real way, these opportunities would have an effect on their practice. With respect to the latter, teachers recognized the diverse classroom as a site for the cultivation of perspective consciousness and collaboration across cultures.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, qualitative findings from 30 interviews were thematically arranged and described to illustrate teachers' thoughts, perceptions, and experiences involving funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies. Each of the nine themes was presented and explained, and a review of themes at the end of each section was provided. The themes were as follows: (1) Patterning funds of knowledge along demographic lines; (2) Typifying dichotomies of exposure; (3) Privileging specific funds of knowledge; (4) Leveraging shared experiences and identities in pursuit of *confianza*; (5) Communicating with families; (6) Conceptualizing global competence; (7) Exercising agency as curricular-instructional gatekeeper; (8) Navigating constraints; and (9) Recognizing affordances.

CHAPTER 5: Discussion of Findings

The goal of this qualitative study was to better understand the experience of urban teachers as global competence educators, specifically, the extent to which they consider and utilize their students' funds of knowledge in the development of global competence. In this study, 30 Boston area teachers were interviewed using a semi-structured protocol to draw out their understandings of students' funds of knowledge and their awareness of how these funds of knowledge might be used to further the development of global competence. Teachers' responses were analyzed through a multi-phase thematic coding process, which aided in drawing out consistencies and distinctions across the data to theorize important findings.

The two major findings to emerge from this study were that: (1) Teachers, while seemingly able and willing to talk about global competence and funds of knowledge in relation to their students, did not seem to synthesize (or speak about their synthesis of) these concepts in practice. Few teachers, if any, explicitly reported on their own use of student funds of knowledge to scaffold learning for global competence in their classrooms. (2) In teacher interviews, potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge were most often recognized in immigrant and/or economically privileged White students. The potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority, and presumably, low-income students were not routinely recognized or accessed.

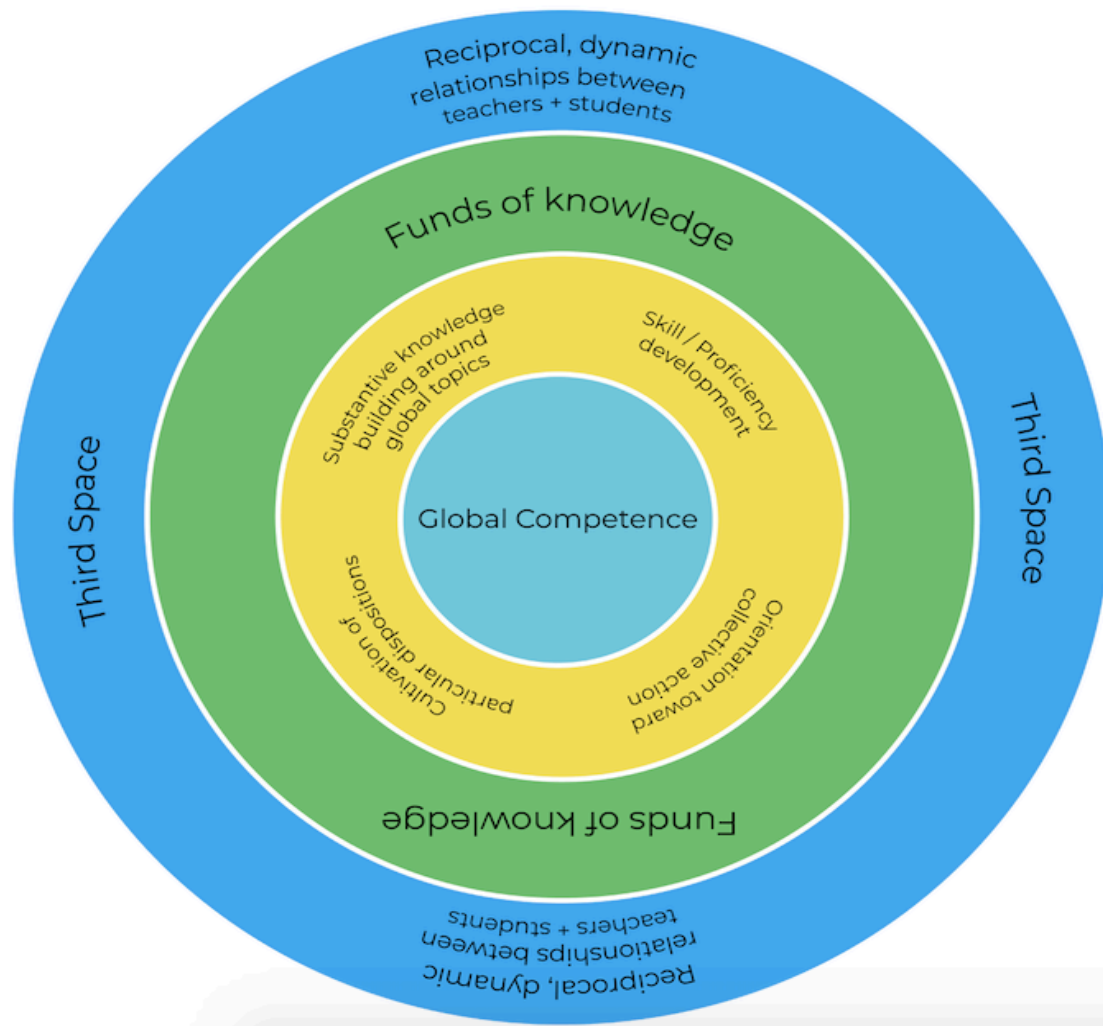
In this chapter, each of the two major findings described above is explored in detail through an application of the conceptual model that was developed for this study.

As the conceptual model was constructed through exploration and synthesis of the extant literature, this chapter will invariably provide insight into the ways in which this study's findings will make a contribution to existing bodies of knowledge. From there, a discussion of the implications of these findings for practice is provided, as well as an explication of the study's limitations and potential areas of future research.

Review of Conceptual Model

The conceptual model developed for this study, and displayed below, draws from the literature in its construction and was conceived of as a way to explain how funds of knowledge might be utilized in the pursuit of global competence. In this model, reciprocal, dynamic relationships and third space are the foundational elements comprising the outermost circle, and are representative of the conditions under which funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies are most likely to occur. Next, student funds of knowledge relevant to the prospect of global competence—identified and accessed by the teacher—comprise the second largest circle. Using these funds of knowledge as an instructional scaffold might then lead to the attainment of the four global competence domains positioned within the third circle: (1) skill/proficiency development; (2) substantive knowledge building around global topics; (3) orientation toward collective action; and (4) cultivation of particular dispositions. Finally, global competence, the model's intended outcome, is placed at the center.

Fok - GC Conceptual Model



Discussion of Finding #1: *Teachers' discussions of global competence and funds of knowledge did not portray a synthesis of these concepts in practice.*

While in their interviews, teachers reflected on their classroom experiences with funds of knowledge and global competence instruction, they did so in ways that did not reflect a synthesis of these ideas in practice. One potential reason for this is that the bringing together of these concepts is not something that has been spelled out in clear

ways by scholarly research or by practitioner-oriented sources of knowledge, and as a result, teachers in this study may have lacked the requisite know-how to carry out this endeavor. Another potential reason might be that teachers' contextual (classroom) environments for one reason or another were not conducive to the work of drawing from students' funds of knowledge to scaffold instruction that supports global competence. As the conceptual model denotes clear links between specific funds of knowledge and global competence attributes--which conceivably, teachers would need to take an active role in initiating--teacher knowledge and contextual support would be of primary importance.

Teacher Knowledge and Know-How. The knowledge and discrete skills that would enable teachers to correctly identify student funds of knowledge and then link them to specific global competence goals is not something that participants in this study seemed to be familiar with. This is perhaps unsurprising, as one would only need to consider the paucity of scholarly writings that address a merging of these concepts to assume its lack of presence in professional development and teacher education programs. Presumably, identification of the links between a particular fund of knowledge, such as *knowing how to work within community and family networks*, and its related global competence attribute, *orientation toward collective action*, requires a certain degree of knowledge and direct guidance. While teachers in this study did not often mention their personal lack of understanding or know-how when it came to the synthesis of funds of knowledge and global competence in practice, neither did they speak in specific, detailed, ways about how this synthesis could happen in theory. Furthermore, as the distinct bodies of literature that address funds of knowledge and global competence point to their

inherent complexities, we can assume that a practical merging of these concepts would not be intuitively derived.

The literature tells us that global education is a concept lacking in definitional clarity (Pike, 2000; Kirkwood, 2001; Le Roux, 2001). Fittingly, this study revealed that teachers' understandings of global competence, what it entails, and how it might relate to funds of knowledge, may have been incomplete or misinformed. In interviews, when describing a globally competent student, teachers' interpretations of what global competence entails and what qualities a globally competent student should exhibit seemed to be constructed through a process that included the weighing of dissonant concepts involving multiple definitions of global education. As there are many ways to interpret global education (which surely, many of the teachers had already been exposed to), it was not difficult to imagine that the example produced by each participant was an outcome of choosing elements that were most personally relevant and compatible with his/her understanding--(even when presented with a singular definition of one term). While it was not wholly possible to extract the specific reasons why some teachers seemed challenged by the prospect of relaying how global competence and funds of knowledge might relate, or, why teachers sometimes interchanged concepts like global competence and cultural competence in discourse, presumptive thought might point toward a general lack of understanding global competence/global education in concrete terms and inexperience in using global competence and funds of knowledge in conversation and practice.

Contextual Challenges. For the teachers in this study, context was an important mitigating factor in the delivery of global competence-fostering content through student funds of knowledge. Teachers pointed to two contextually-based preventative factors affecting their ability to synthesize funds of knowledge and global competence pedagogies. Those factors were: (1) prospective backlash from the community in response to teachers' engagement with students around contentious topics; and (2) pressures or expectations emanating from school, district, or state administrators relating to mandatory assessments, curriculum standards, and pacing.

For some, it seemed that teachers' curricular-instructional decisions relating to global competence were impacted by their perceptions of how the larger community would react. Often times, teachers reported being much less likely to introduce topics that might build global competence when those topics were contentious in nature, or when family/community perspectives on a particular issue were divided. This finding is compatible with Steiner (1992), who, in a sample of 200 teachers, found that most tended to incorporate into their curriculum global education topics relating to the environment or other cultures, while steering clear of more complex, politically or otherwise charged ideas. Similarly, the present study, which looked at teachers' understandings and uses of student funds of knowledge in the development of global competence, found that some teachers refrained from approaching certain topics in the classroom because they were politically contentious and had the potential to rouse the ire of parents or school administrators. Other teachers abandoned difficult topics mid-course due to parental/administrative backlash. Recall from the interviews, how Rosa, a visual arts

teacher, spoke about the controversy stemming from her unit on the International Day of Peace, which eventually drew attention from the media, mayor, and superintendent of schools. In this case and others, teachers grappled with making a choice between addressing the perceived needs of students who may have felt victimized and/or vulnerable (i.e. by the Trump election and/or police brutality), and families who supported an opposing view. And, typically, this battle was won by the families.

Global issues are often times political in nature. For example, many people refute the implications of climate change; individuals have divergent views on how (or if) we should solve global poverty; and social movements invariably have political implications. These issues are all bound up in politics and values, and understandably, navigating a potential minefield is not something that all teachers would be able or willing to do. The finding here, that teachers in the throes of curricular decision-making, will often choose a course of less resistance, falls in line with the assertions of Robbins, Francis, & Elliott (2003), and others who have similarly found this to be true.

In this study, teachers also identified standardized curricula, pacing, and assessments as limiting factors on their ability to teach for global competence. For example, several teachers noted that their classroom activities were largely guided by standardized curriculum frameworks and pacing guides; in short, they were teaching what they were teaching because there was an expectation that certain topics would be covered and assessed. While Rapoport (2010) points out the necessity of straightforward curricular guidance when it comes to teaching for global perspective (cultivation of particular dispositions), an application of this study's conceptual model highlights two

additional global competence domains that would be strengthened by inclusion in curriculum frameworks and assessments: skill and proficiency development, and substantive knowledge building around global topics. As global competence is not typically tested or included in curriculum frameworks, it would be easily relegated to marginal status without a clear directive that communicates its importance. And, while curriculum standards and assessments generally place limits on teacher curricular autonomy, they do provide structure and direction to teachers who may need or desire it. Frameworks and assessments are often a motivating force in teachers' curricular decisions, and presumably, a shift toward curriculum frameworks that include topics promoting global competence would enact a shift in teacher activities in favor of teaching for global competence.

It is also important to note that funds of knowledge would be difficult if not impossible to address in the curriculum standards due to their genesis in the experience of the individual. However, if funds of knowledge are conceived of as the potential vehicle through which global competence (the ultimate goal) might be attained, an important first step in carrying out the work of using funds of knowledge to develop global competence would be clear identification and commitment to the end goal. As such, the findings from this study suggest that a prioritization of funds of knowledge/global competence pedagogy would be more likely if curriculum standards and related assessments were more clearly in support of global competence.

Discussion of Finding #2: *Teachers did not routinely recognize or access the potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority students.*

This study's conceptual model details the procedures and conditions necessary for utilizing student funds of knowledge to scaffold global competence instruction. The second, and perhaps most significant finding of this study, that teachers in their interviews did not routinely recognize or access the potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority students, highlights one specific way that the practical integration of these concepts--mapped out by the conceptual model--was impeded. While teachers in this study were able to elaborate on the global competence-supporting funds of knowledge that they believed their immigrant and economically privileged students possessed--for example, those stemming from international travel experiences and exposure to varied cultural practices--they omitted any references to students who did not fit into either of these categories.

Three specific themes emanating from the data offer insight into the factors that may have contributed to this phenomenon. First, teachers in this study often reported feeling more successful with making connections to families when they shared similar racial, ethnic, linguistic, or experiential backgrounds. Second, teachers described funds of knowledge as group-specific, rarely recognizing students' individual attributes. And, lastly, teachers made assumptions about the inherent usefulness of particular funds of knowledge vis-a-vis global competence, and prioritized some funds of knowledge over others. The implications of each of these themes with regard to the conceptual model are explained in detail in the section below.

Limited student and family connections. Teachers in this study often reported feeling more successful with making student and family connections when they shared similar racial, ethnic, or linguistic backgrounds, or had common experiences, like immigration to the United States. For example, in the interviews, discussions of shared language, country of origin, or experience as an émigré from respective countries of origin seemed to be an important way that teacher and student/family relationships were forged. As it was clear from the data that teachers did not routinely comment on their relationships with students and families who were not economically privileged or from immigrant backgrounds, an assumption can be made that if teachers lacked a common identity or experience with certain families, then authentic relationships failed to develop. This would have a negative impact on a necessary condition for integrating funds of knowledge and global competence as detailed by the conceptual model: reciprocal, dynamic relationships between a classroom teacher and *each* of his or her students.

Confianza, according to Velez-Ibanez (1983), and Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti (2005), is the most important mediator in social relationships, and is a prerequisite for engaging in the ethnographic study that comprises funds of knowledge pedagogy. According to the literature, reciprocity is a key component of *confianza*. According to Velez-Ibanez (1983), reciprocity represents an “attempt to establish a social relationship on an enduring basis... Whether symmetrical or asymmetrical, the exchange expresses and symbolizes human social interdependence” (p. 134). A possible interpretation of this particular finding, that teachers were unlikely to establish reciprocal, dynamic relationships with certain groups of students--and which would challenge the notion of

reciprocity as being particularly salient in the establishment of *confianza*--is that *confianza* (or the construction of reciprocal, dynamic relationships) is actually the result of a partnership in which mutuality has been established. Mutuality, as a concept, implies an exchange in which one recognizes not what can be done for another or what can be reciprocated, but the ability to see something of one's self in the other. This does not have to be a reflection of race, language, or ethnic background, necessarily, (although one might assume that it would help), but it could be, for instance, the common experience of being an immigrant.

In the interviews, shared experience and identity was brought up most often when referring to immigrant students or students whose family hailed from a country other than the United States. This leaves one to ask, then: *How would reciprocal, dynamic relationships be developed with students who do not have international connections?* Data from the interviews reveal that additional contributors to *confianza* would be certain teacher dispositions like openness and being non-judgmental. This aligns with the assertion of Norma Gonzalez, et al. (2005), who states: "...when there is sincere interest in both learning about and learning from a household, relationships and *confianza* can flourish" (p. 6).

Group-based depictions of student funds of knowledge. In teacher interviews, student funds of knowledge were depicted in ways that reflected generalized assumptions or understandings about groups of students, what they do, and what they know. For instance, across the data, students who shared SES status or cultural identity were similarly characterized. One example is the way in which many teachers reported that

their Latinx students had an advantage with regard to one particular global competence domain, *orientation toward collective action*, due to these students' experiences working within community and family networks and their experiences with communal living. Teachers' common descriptions of the presumed funds of knowledge of students belonging to particular groups (i.e. Asian, Haitian, Latinx, White affluent) raises an implication that these teachers may be missing out on opportunities to realize their students' individual attributes as they construct generalizations about who they are and what they bring to the classroom. This study's conceptual framework would be thereby impacted because, by failing to recognize individual attributes, some students may be overlooked in the construction of reciprocal, dynamic relationships between teachers and students.

Another important implication that this finding raises is that, in describing students as members of group entities, and typifying them as such, teachers neglect the preponderances of intersectionality and cultural fluidity which mark the identities of individuals in a pluralistic society (Paris, 2012). While in these interviews, culture was less of an explicit focus in teachers' descriptions than perhaps race, ethnicity, or economic status, we are still reminded of Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti's (2005) admonitions against depicting groups as monolithic entities, as this erroneously "presumes coherence within groups, which may not exist" (p. 10). Additionally, Zipin (2009) reminds us that cultures are dynamic and ever changing.

The potential for more nuanced depictions of funds of knowledge would not be discounted here, as teachers in this study spoke more to the activities of students (sports,

church, hanging out with family, etc.) than they did their cultures. At the same time, however, teachers' depictions of these activities were typically generalizable by race, class, and/or ethnicity. For instance, Asian students were often characterized as 'latchkey kids', known for spending excessive amounts of time at home alone; Latino students were characterized as being engaged in multiple family activities/interactions; and White students, according to teachers, often went skiing and took part in structured activities in their out of school time. Overall, a more individuated approach to gathering funds of knowledge that deliberately eschews generalizations would be useful here, and might potentially open a gateway for better accessing the funds of knowledge of low-SES, non-White, non-immigrant students.

Prioritization of particular funds of knowledge. In this study, interviews revealed that only certain funds of knowledge were deemed particularly relevant to the prospect of developing global competence. When asked to reflect on the specific funds of knowledge that might optimally position students for global competence, many teachers focused on the international travel experiences of immigrant and/or economically privileged students. Those who had visited other countries or lived overseas, teachers presumed, would be primed for global competence instruction due to the amassed funds of knowledge that were a direct result of these experiences. The specific sources of these funds of knowledge included: international travel experience, exposure to varied cultural practices, awareness of state of the planet, and knowledge of global systems. After identifying these funds of knowledge, teachers were then able to connect, if not practically, then in theory, each to a specific global

competence domain which would lend to the development of global competence.

While the overseas experience was not exclusively brought up as a source of global competence-worthy fund of knowledge, it was, however, mentioned with extraordinary frequency. The implications of this phenomenon are such that, as teachers prioritized--whether consciously or otherwise--specific types of funds of knowledge (or funds of knowledge from specific groups), they axiomatically deprioritized, and/or discouraged others. Through the conceptual model, we realize that beyond the initial identification of student assets, teachers must draw connections between funds of knowledge and a relatable global competence domain. Teachers' failure to recognize and/or prioritize particular funds of knowledge (presumably those of low-SES, non-immigrant, minority students) inevitably discounts some of the potential links between funds of knowledge and global competence that would enable a synthesis of these concepts in practice.

In interviews, when steered away from their focus on immigrant and economically privileged students and asked to elaborate on other funds of knowledge that may be present in their classrooms, teachers remarked on some students' resilience in the face of conditions like neighborhood crime, parental illness/death, and drug addiction. Those less desirable funds of knowledge, referred to in the literature as *dark funds of knowledge*, often manifest as the "complex knowledges and expertise [that] emerge in family and community resistances, resiliencies and other creative copings with difficult material and cultural conditions of poverty and 'otherness'" (Zipin, 2009, p. 322). Unsurprisingly, teachers in this study did not

mention resilience or other dark funds of knowledge as potential assets in the global competence classroom. Grant & Sleeter (2007), and Hogg (2010), however, caution against this positionality, as the recognition and utilization of these “dark” funds of knowledge have the potential to invigorate lessons. Classroom discussions that draw from dark funds of knowledge can: “generate high student participation, support relevant connections with other knowledge, and allow conversation about [students’] concerns and questions” (Hogg, 2010, p. 671).

Additional Considerations

In the conceptual model, the *establishment of reciprocal, dynamic relationships between teachers and students* and the *third space* are concepts that represent the conditions under which an integration of funds of knowledge and global competence would be most likely to occur. An important idea worthy of deeper consideration here, however, is the relationship of these conditions vis-a-vis teachers’ acquisition of student funds of knowledge. From the discussion in the preceding sections, we can clearly see how these necessary conditions would be diminished by disruptions to the teacher activities embedded in the conceptual model. For example, if teachers neglected to identify and access the individual funds of knowledge possessed by students in their classrooms, they also proved less likely to establish reciprocal, dynamic relationships with them. Additionally, if the funds of knowledge gathered by teachers were not actively linked with one of the four global competence domains, the likelihood of existence for the transformative third space was diminished. And so, we must also ask whether these conceptual relationships would work in the reverse order: *As potential*

preconditions for the integration of funds of knowledge and global competence, do these concepts actually need to be in place in order for teachers to engage in this work? In short, the answer is, yes. While reciprocal, dynamic relationships and the third space are necessary preconditions for achieving global competence through an accessing of student funds of knowledge, these conditions are also developed and strengthened by teachers' activities. In short, third space and reciprocal, dynamic relationships not only enable teachers' attempts to identify and access student funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence, but they can also be directly cultivated through teachers' attempts at learning about, gathering, and utilizing funds of knowledge to build global competence. Thus, as the existence of third space and reciprocal, dynamic relationships impart a host of other student benefits--both academic and socio-emotional--teachers would be wise to consider engagement in the work of gathering funds of knowledge for global competence as a tool for improving student outcomes overall.

On a related note, the findings of this study, and in particular, finding #2, remind us that even in urban districts and schools, there are some students who are privileged over others, and this privileging creates and/or reinforces opportunity gaps that have deleterious consequences for student performance and well-being. For example, students whose funds of knowledge are routinely discounted or overlooked may not be presented with equitable chances to connect with their teachers, students, or the curriculum to reap the benefits of an education that places the student at its center. As we often think of educational disparity as being a comparative difference from school to school, district to

district, or state to state, it is important to realize that unequal practices can also be confined within the walls of singular classrooms.

Summary of Major Findings

The two major findings to emerge from this study were that: (1) Teachers, while seemingly able and willing to talk about global competence and funds of knowledge in relation to their students, did not seem to synthesize (or speak about their synthesis of) these concepts in practice. Few teachers, if any, explicitly reported on their own use of student funds of knowledge to scaffold global competence instruction in their classrooms. (2) In teacher interviews, potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge were most often recognized in immigrant and/or White and economically privileged students. The potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority, and presumably, low-income students were not routinely recognized or accessed.

A teasing apart of these findings provides deeper insight into what may be gleaned from this study, and helps us to understand why, in urban settings like the ones where these teachers were situated, the process of using student funds of knowledge to teach for global competence is often uninitiated or incomplete. With regard to the first finding, that teachers in their interviews did not portray a synthesis of funds of knowledge and global competence in practice, there are two likely contributing factors. The first factor is a lack of teacher know-how and/or conceptual knowledge when it comes to global competence. The second is contextually-based preventive factors, like strict curriculum pacing, standardized assessments, or the prospect of backlash from the

community (as a result of dealing with a contentious instructional topic). With regard to the second major finding, a contributing factor was that teachers in the urban setting did not routinely recognize or access the funds of knowledge of non-immigrant, minority students. Other factors were that teachers were more likely to build *confianza* with students and families who shared an aspect of their identity or personal experience; also, that teachers prioritized certain funds of knowledge over others, and that they routinely spoke about funds of knowledge in terms of their students' group identities.

Viewed through the lens of the conceptual model, each of these findings and their respective contributing factors constituted forces that mitigated the prospect of accessing and utilizing student funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence. If, for instance, teachers were truly unsupported (because of contextual challenges) in creating an inclusive and transformative third space, or in developing reciprocal, dynamic relationships between themselves and *all* of their students (because they were challenged in establishing *confianza* with certain groups), conditions would be improper for the practical merging of funds of knowledge and global competence. And, even if these necessary conditions were met, deficiencies in teacher know-how or conceptual knowledge, along with preferential assumptions made about student assets, would negatively impact teachers' ability to recognize diverse funds of knowledge and connect them to appropriate global competence domains. From this study, we also learned that teachers' activities involving the use of student funds of knowledge in the development of global competence have a bi-directional impact on the establishment of reciprocal, dynamic relationships between teachers and students and the third space. Teachers who

fail to take advantage of this pedagogical strategy inevitably miss out on an opportunity to enrich their classroom environments, to value and center student knowledge, and to prepare students for a globalized, and changing world.

Implications for Practice

Without knowing in concrete terms what global competence is, and which specific funds of knowledge might lend to the development of global competence, practical connections between student funds of knowledge and global competence instruction are unlikely to take root. Additionally, if the contextual environment of the classroom or school itself is not conducive to the practice of using funds of knowledge to scaffold for global competence instruction — whether because of curriculum-narrowing standards, a lack of teacher curricular autonomy, or the potential of backlash from the community — this work is unlikely to occur. Clear guidance showing teachers how to engage in this work in an explicit way--and having clear expectations for instructional activities communicated through curriculum frameworks and standardized assessments--would help to support the use of funds of knowledge pedagogy to scaffold global competence instruction.

In-service professional development and teacher education program coursework would be opportune sites for developing the knowledge and skills in teachers and prospective teachers to access and utilize various funds of knowledge from diverse students to scaffold global competence instruction in an equitable way. Additionally, revisions of assessments, statewide curriculum frameworks, and perhaps, the Common Core, to have a more explicit focus on substantive knowledge of global topics, would

send a clear message to educational stakeholders that global competence is a worthy instructional goal.

Supporting and encouraging teachers — whether through in-service or pre-service programming, or through contextual and policy changes — to access funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence will enrich the educational experience of urban students in powerful ways. Neglecting to do so, however, would further inhibit teachers from accessing this strategy as an important tool for building classroom relationships and establishing a transformative third space where powerful learning can occur.

Limitations of Study

Because this study was geographically limited to the Boston area, many of the findings may be specific to this particular region, and not easily generalizable to other urban settings. For example, the high immigrant populations found in many Boston-area schools may not be reflective of student populations in other urban centers.

Also, because participants in this study were drawn from my professional network and their referrals, a limitation of this study may be that the participants shared particular characteristics that are not typical of the general population. However, by employing purposeful selection, I took care to select participants from the pool of volunteers who would be best able to provide information relevant to my research.

Finally, as this study relied exclusively on teachers' articulated reflections of their practice, an important limitation of this research was that I, as a researcher, was not able to observe participating teachers in their classrooms or examine artifacts that were representative of their work. The ability to witness teachers' activities and the products

of their activities firsthand would have likely verified--or else, negated--what they relayed to me in interviews, and surely would have imparted a more nuanced understanding of their activities and challenges with regard to this work.

Future Research

Further exploration of this topic and the implications raised would be a worthy endeavor. In my current role as Director of New Teacher Development for Boston Public Schools, I see the potential to leverage my professional position in advancement of the goals of this study. As the Director of New Teacher Development, my work includes two main components: (1) coordination of induction mentoring support for the district's 300-plus novice teachers; and (2) oversight of the Boston Public Schools Teaching Fellowship, an accelerated teacher pipeline program to initial licensure. Embedded within each of these work components is a responsibility to lead the design and administration of in-service professional development as well as practicum and pre-practicum coursework for new teachers, new teacher developer mentors, and BPS Teaching Fellows.

It is through these teacher education and development responsibilities that I see the most potential for expanding the scope of this project's impact. For example, as I have substantial latitude in deciding (and working with my full-time staff to deliver) the professional development options for the 250 mentor teachers who provide induction support to over 300 first year teachers, my goal for future years is to build professional development sessions that specifically aim to grow new teachers' capacity to investigate student funds of knowledge with global competence as one goal of instruction. I imagine

that this would include: (1) engagement in reflective practices to uncover teachers' implicit biases that would impact the ability to recognize individual attributes of *all* students, and (2) sessions aimed at building teachers' conceptual understandings of global competence and pedagogical know-how when it comes to accessing student funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence.

In my oversight of the BPS Teaching Fellowship, I have somewhat less autonomy in deciding course topics, as we are bound to certain expectations put forth by the state of Massachusetts. Still, as Teaching Fellows receive routine instructional coaching from the three full-time New Teacher Developers with whom I closely work, I do see an opportunity to introduce best practices relating to funds of knowledge and global competence through the medium of instructional coaching. Further, as I frequently collect data to inform my program activities, I envision that additional studies might be generated to examine the impacts of these initiatives.

Apart from my work at Boston Public Schools, future related research might also include a replication of this study in a city other than Boston, comprised of a demographically distinct population, as looking at the research questions in another urban site would test the ability to generalize this study's findings more broadly. Additionally, research that looks comparatively at the extent to which suburban and/or rural teachers consider and utilize student funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence would be highly informative. Lastly, as none of the teachers in the present study communicated a detailed account of their practical use of funds of knowledge to scaffold global competence instruction, a case study or series of case studies that examine specific

accounts of teachers engaging in this work would help to deepen understandings of this topic and the workings of the conceptual model.

Conclusion

This study explored the extent to which teachers in the urban setting considered and utilized student funds of knowledge in the pursuit of global competence. Thirty Boston-area teachers were interviewed in this qualitative study, using a semi-structured protocol that sought to draw out nuanced versions of teachers' understandings and experiences relating to this topic. A conceptual model was built by drawing from extant literature on the topics of both funds of knowledge and global competence, and served as a device for analyzing, understanding, and theorizing teachers' responses as part of a rigorous, multi-phase, thematic coding process.

There are important contributions that this study makes to existing scholarship. First, as there does not at present seem to be significant research that specifically looks at the practical or theoretical integration of funds of knowledge and global competence, this study breaks ground for future research on an important and necessary topic. Further, this study's construction of a conceptual model explaining the conditions and practices under which the functional integration of funds of knowledge and global competence might occur, paints a lucid image for not only understanding the phenomenon at hand, but also provides a framework that can be expanded as additional insights are gleaned. Finally, the two major findings of this study: (1) that teachers in the urban setting, while engaging in discussions about the global competence-related funds of knowledge that they believed their students had, did not portray a synthesis of these concepts in practice;

and, (2) that teachers did not routinely recognize or access the potential global competence-supporting funds of knowledge possessed by non-immigrant, minority students, are significant, as they help us to better understand the potential challenges to engaging in this important work.

APPENDIX A: EMAIL SCRIPT**EMAIL SCRIPT**

Hi _____,

I hope this email finds you well. As you may know, I'm currently enrolled in a doctoral program at Boston University School of Education, where my research involves looking at how teachers in urban settings access the diversity within their classrooms to teach in ways that promote global competence. Because I know that you have experience teaching in an urban classroom, I'm wondering if you'd be willing to share some of your thoughts and experiences with me. Your participation would include an hour-long interview, which would take place at a time and location that is convenient to you.

Please let me know if this is something that you'd be interested in learning more about, and possibly taking part in.

Thanks for your consideration!

Jalene Tamerat

APPENDIX B: TEACHER RECRUITMENT LETTER

Dear Teacher,

You have been invited to take part in a research study that is designed to learn more about how urban teachers consider and draw from their students as Funds of Knowledge in the development of global competence.

Participation in this study involves a 60-90 minute face-to-face, audio-recorded interview with Jalene Tamerat, the primary investigator of this study, at a location and time that is mutually convenient.

The data collected from this study will be used for research purposes and may be published. However, your name will not be used in any write-ups or publications of the findings, and your responses will be confidential. Following the interview, study data will be stored in a locked cabinet. For the purposes of quality improvement and safety, the Institutional Review Board may review your study records.

The risks associated with participating in this study are minimal. You will not directly benefit from participating in this study, but the results of this study may be useful to others across the country in the education field interested in diverse student populations and global competence.

Your participation is completely voluntary. There is no penalty if you wish not to participate in this study, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. You will not be paid to participate in this study.

If you decide that you would like to participate in this study, please contact Jalene Tamerat at 617-645-3651 or at jtamerat@bu.edu.

You may also obtain further information about your rights as a research participant by calling the Office of the Institutional Review Board of Boston University at 617-358-6115.

Thank You!

Sincerely,

Jalene Tamerat, M.A.T., M.Ed.
Boston University
School of Education

APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

18+ INFORMED CONSENT FOR NON-MEDICAL RESEARCH

Urban Teachers' Understandings of the Relationship between Funds of Knowledge and Global Competence

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Jalene Tamerat, a doctoral student at Boston University, that explores the relationship between Funds of Knowledge and global competence education. Your participation in this study is voluntary. Please review the information below, and ask questions about anything that may be unclear to you before deciding to participate. You may take your time to review this document, and discuss whether you want to participate with your family or friends.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The goal of this study is to better understand the experience of teachers as global competence educators in urban classroom settings, specifically, the ways in which they regard and utilize their students as potential repositories of knowledge.

STUDY PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to be a participant in this study, you agree to take part in a 1:1, face-to-face, semi-structured interview, administered at a mutually agreed upon time and location. Your interview will be audio-recorded for subsequent transcription, and will take up to 90 minutes to complete.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

You will be asked questions about your professional life, which may be upsetting to some individuals. Sitting for a period of time may cause some physical discomfort.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

There are no anticipated direct benefits associated with participating in this study. However, the results of this study may be useful to others across the country in the education field interested in diverse student populations and global competence.

PAYMENT/COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

You will not be paid for participating in this research study.

POTENTIAL CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

There are no potential conflicts of interest.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data collected from this study will be used for research purposes and may be published. However, your name will be kept anonymous in any write-ups or publications of the findings, and your responses will be confidential. Following the interview, study data will be stored in a locked cabinet. For the purposes of quality improvement and safety, the Institutional Review Board may review your study records.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is completely voluntary. There is no penalty if you wish not to participate in this study, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. You will not be paid to participate in this study.

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Primary Investigator:
Jalene Tamerat, M.A.T., M.Ed.
Boston University
School of Education
617-645-3651
jtamerat@bu.edu

Faculty Supervisor:
Dr. Scott Seider, Ed.D.
Boston University
School of Education
617-353-3223
seider@bu.edu

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the IRB directly using the information provided below. You may obtain further information about your rights as a research subject by contacting the Boston University Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Research at 617-358-6115 or irb@bu.edu.

APPENDIX D: TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Teacher Interview Protocol: *Urban Teachers' Understandings of the Relationship between Funds of Knowledge and Global Competence*

Before beginning the interview:

- Introduce self.
- This study aims to learn about how urban teachers draw from students' lives outside of school to teach for global competence.*
- The interview will last about 45-60 minutes.*
- Your name will be kept confidential, and you are free to stop this interview at any time.*
- There are no right or wrong answers, so please be as honest as you can.*
- Do you have any additional questions?*

Background Questions:

State participant's name and the date

1. Please describe your professional role at your school.
 - a. What grade/subject do you teach?
 - b. How long have you been a teacher? At this school? Somewhere else?
 - c. How did you become a teacher? (Describe academic/professional training and motivations.)

Offer definitions of global competence and funds of knowledge: (Also, give these definitions in written form for participants to read)

- "Global competence" describes a student's ability to think about international issues, and work with others from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds to act upon them.
- "Funds of knowledge" refers to the body of knowledge and skills that students acquire from their household settings that allow them to function within their home cultures.

Funds of Knowledge and Global Competence:

2. Tell me about the students that you currently teach. Who are they? (Make sure demographic—ethnic, linguistic descriptions are included in description.)
3. When you talk to your students about their lives outside of school, what do they typically tell you?

4. How would you describe the “home culture” of your students?
5. Generally speaking, what types of knowledge or skills do your students possess that was not likely taught in a school setting?
6. Describe your interactions with your students’ families (nature and frequency).
7. When your students’ parents or other family members talk to you about their lives outside of school, what do they typically tell you?
8. Can you walk me through your process of deciding which topics you’ll likely cover in a given unit—What are the major influences that play a role in your curricular decisions?
9. How important to you is it that your students’ lives outside of school are reflected in the curriculum that you teach?
10. Have you ever attempted to draw from your students’ lives outside of school to create a class unit or lesson?

14a. If yes, please describe.

14b. If no, why not?

11. How, in your opinion, might your students’ lives outside of school influence their levels of global competence?
12. How would you describe your school’s attempts to influence students’ global competence?
13. Describe your role in developing globally competent students at your school.
14. Do you ever incorporate lessons, ideas, or strategies that promote global competence in your classes?
Why or why not?

If “yes”:

- a. How often would you say that you do?
- b. Can you describe a unit or lesson that stands out?
15. Tell me about a student, current or former, who in your opinion really embodies what it means to be globally competent.

16. To what would you attribute this student's global competence? Was it something that you would say was developed in school, or was it the result of something else? Please describe.
17. What would you say is the relationship between global competence and Funds of Knowledge?
18. In your opinion, how would/does global competence education impact your students' overall educational experience?
19. In your opinion, how would/does drawing from students' Funds of Knowledge impact your students' overall educational experience?
20. Do you have any questions for me, or is there anything else you'd like to add?

Thanks!

APPENDIX E: NOTIFICATION OF IRB REVIEW

Boston University Charles River Campus Institutional Review Board

25 Buick Street
Room 157
Boston, Massachusetts 02215
T 617-358-6115
www.bu.edu/irb



Notification of IRB Review: Exemption Request

November 17, 2015

Jalene Tamerat
School of Education
2 Silber Way
Boston, MA 02215

Protocol Title:	Urban teachers' understandings of the relationship between Funds of Knowledge and Global Competence
Protocol #:	3916X
Funding Agency:	Unfunded
IRB Review Type:	Exempt 2

Dear Ms. Tamerat:

On November 17, 2015, the IRB determined that the above-referenced protocol meets the criteria for exemption in accordance with CFR 46.101(b) 2. Per the protocol, this qualitative study will investigate the research question: "To what extent do urban teachers consider and draw from their students as Funds of Knowledge in the development of global competence?" The exempt determination includes the use of: Consent Form, Interview protocol, Recruitment Letter, Email Script.

Additional review of this study is not needed unless changes are made to the current version of the study. Any changes to the current protocol must be reported and reviewed by the IRB. If you have any changes, please submit the **Clarification Form** located at <http://www.bu.edu/irb/>. No changes can be implemented until they have been reviewed by the IRB.

In approximately six months, you will receive an inquiry from the IRB to ascertain whether your study still meets the requirements for exempt review.

If you have any questions, please contact me at 617-358-6115.

Sincerely,

Shayne C. Deal, CIP
Senior IRB Analyst
Charles River Campus IRB

c.c. Scott Seider, Ph.D.

APPENDIX F: INTERVIEW CODEBOOK

Code Name	Definition	Reference (if applicable)
Funds of knowledge	The historically developed and accumulated strategies or bodies of knowledge that are essential to a household's functioning and well-being	Gonzalez, et al., 1995/2005)
<i>Confianza</i>	Mutual trust; the single most important mediator in social relationships	(Velez-Ibanez, 1983)
Deficit theorizing	Attribution of students' educational failures to supposed cultural deficits	(Jensen, 1969; Paris, 2012)
Cultural fluidity	People draw from multiple cultural systems	(Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005)
Classroom diversity	The differences in race, ethnicity, language, experience, etc. found in a given classroom	
Immigrant status	A person who was born abroad, but now lives in the U.S.	
Minority status	A person belonging to a racial, religious, etc. minority group	
Bias	Prejudice in favor or against someone or something	
International travel experience	The experience of traveling abroad	
Curricular relevance to students' lives	The extent to which curriculum connects to students' lived experiences	
Real-world application of curriculum	The extent to which curriculum can be applied to a real-world setting	
Nature of teacher/family communication	Described interactions between teacher and family members	
Nature of teacher/student communication	Described interactions between teacher and student	
Parent work	The nature of parents' work outside of the home	
Parent English proficiency	The extent to which parents are able to communicate in English	
Student time alone	The amount of time that a student spends without guardianship outside of school	

Specified family roles	The regular, specific duties taken on by individuals within a family	
Belief	Religious practices and institutions that are a part of belief systems	
Caretaking	Caring for siblings or other family members	
Navigation	How one 'gets around' the urban environment	
Family business	Place of business run by a family	
Popular culture	Contemporary mainstream culture	
Social media	Technological platforms for engaging in social networking	
Cultural/racial/ethnic background of teacher	Implications of teacher cultural/racial/ethnic background vis-a-vis accessing student FoK	
Privilege	Having a special advantage over others	
Mediation/negotiation/diplomacy	As FoK, ability to serve as a go-between between parties in pursuit of a particular outcome	
Confusing terms: Funds of Knowledge	When teachers speak about other concepts when asked about Funds of Knowledge	
Code Name	Definition	Reference (if applicable)
Multilingualism	Ability to communicate in more than one language	
Technological proficiency	Ability to communicate and access information using technology	
Awareness of state of the planet	Knowledge of the world's current condition	(Hanvey, 1982)
Awareness of global dynamics	Knowledge of how various parties interact and how change occurs	(Hanvey, 1982)
Superficial global knowledge	Knowledge of the world that focuses on food, festivals, famous people, fashion, and flags	(Walker, 2001)
Perspective consciousness	The recognition that multiple perspectives exist	(Hanvey, 1982)
Collaboration	Working with others toward a common goal	

Insularity	Lack of interest in the cultures and experiences of others	
Realizing global interconnectedness	The extent to which one realizes that events in one part of the world can impact other parts of the world	
Making a difference	Taking action to contribute to improvement locally, regionally, or globally	(Boix-Mansilla & Jackson, 2011)
Awareness of global tragedies	Knowledge of disastrous or otherwise unfortunate global events	
Disciplinarity	Assumption that global topics are easier to do in subjects than others	(Tye & Tye, 1993; Robbins, Francis & Elliott, 2003)
Facility with teaching global topics	How challenging it is to teach students about the world	
Job marketability and global competence	Global competence education for job employment opportunities	
International Baccalaureate (IB)	Indicating membership in the IB organization. Provides schools with curriculum frameworks and guiding principles that relate to international mindedness and student centered learning	
Confusing terms: Global competence	When teachers use terms like global competence and cultural competence interchangeably	
Parent/student fear of travel	Students do not take part in international opportunities because they or their parents are fearful	
School-sponsored extra-curricular activities	School-sponsored programs and opportunities that students take part in outside of class time	
Code Name	Definition	Reference (if applicable)
Foundational skills	Basic level of understanding of a topic upon which new knowledge can be built	
Competing issues in the classroom	Things that may be prioritized with regard to teaching and learning	

Teacher skill	The extent to which teacher has the skills necessary to perform a specific task	
Curriculum pacing	The schedule that dictates what should be taught, and when	
Prescribed curriculum	A curriculum that is developed and mandated by someone other than the teacher	
School resource availability	The extent to which resources are available for school/classroom use	
Teacher as curricular-instructional gatekeeper	The choices teachers make about what and how they teach	(Thornton, 1991)
Teacher avoidance of topics due to fear	Teacher avoids teaching/discussing topics due to fear of backlash, etc.	
Culturally relevant pedagogy	Systematic incorporation of student culture as official knowledge in the classroom	(Ladson-Billings, 1995)
Culturally sustaining pedagogy	Fosters & sustains cultural, linguistic, etc. pluralism	(Paris, 2012)
Reality pedagogy	Students as repositories of pedagogical knowledge	(Emdin, 2016)
Third space	Conceptual bridge between home and school worlds, where construction of new knowledge is possible	(Gutierrez, 2008; Moje et al., 2004; Paris, 2012)
Code Name	Definition	Reference (if applicable)
2016 Election/Trump Presidency	Related to or stemming from the 2016 election of President Trump	
Social justice	An outcome in which groups receive equitable treatment with respect to economics, law, etc.	
Code Name	Definition	Reference (if applicable)
Student employment		
Exam school		
Creativity		
Example of globally competent student		

Relationship between GC & FoK		
Curiosity		
Critical thinking		
Transformation		
SES status		
Empathy		
Privacy		
Motivation for initiatives		
Dark funds of knowledge		
Cultural pride		
Teacher passion		
Trauma		
Student interest		
Teacher global exposure		
Concerted cultivation		
Developmental appropriateness		
Communication skill		
Global history		
Interdisciplinary		
Global competence lesson example		
FoK that position for GC		
Exposure		

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CURRICULUM VITAE

